

The Effects of Perceived Product-Association
Incongruity on Consumption Experiences

Sarah Clemente

Graduate Program in Faculty of Business

Submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirement for the degree of

MSc in Management

Faculty of Graduate Studies, Brock University, St Catharines, Ontario

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction.....	6
Theoretical Contributions and Managerial Implications.....	9
Theoretical Framework.....	10
Schema Incongruity Processing Theory.....	11
Co-Branding and Sponsorship	14
Taste Perception and Product Knowledge	15
Hypothesis Development.....	18
Experiment 1	20
Pilot Study Method	21
Pilot Study Results	22
Experiment 1 Method.....	24
Experiment 1 Results	26
Experiment 1 Discussion	31
Experiment 2.....	33
Hypothesis Development	34
Priming Statement Pilot Study Method.....	36
Priming Statement Pilot Study Results	37
Female Athlete Pilot Study Method.....	37
Female Athlete Pilot Study Results.....	38
Main Experiment 2 Method	39
Main Experiment 2 Results	39

Experiment 2 Discussion	43
General Discussion	46
Theoretical Contributions.....	48
Managerial Implications.....	51
Limitations and Future Research.....	52
Conclusion	58
Appendix A.....	60
Summary of Competing Theories	60
Appendix B	61
Summary of Pilot Studies and Main Experiments	61
Appendix C	65
List of Male and Female Athletes	65
Appendix D.....	66
Athlete Ranking Pilot Survey.....	66
Appendix E	71
Order of Wine Sampling for Experiment 1	71
Appendix F.....	72
Wine Knowledge Scale	72
Appendix G.....	74
Athlete and Wine Prime Conditions.....	74
Appendix H.....	76
Female Athlete Ranking Pilot Survey.....	76
References.....	80

Tables and Figures	88
Figure 1	88
Figure 2	89
Figure 3	90
Figure 4	91
Figure 5	92
Figure 6	93
Figure 7	94
Figure 8	95
Figure 9	96
Figure 10	97
Figure 11	98
Figure 12	99
Figure 13	100
Figure 14	101
Figure 15	102
Figure 16	103
Figure 17	104
Figure 18	105
Figure 19	106

The level of congruity is determined by the degree of match between an object and its associated attribute. Product evaluations are positively influenced when there is moderate incongruity between a product and its association; this finding is termed the moderate schema incongruity effect (Mandler 1982). The current study investigates the influence of extrinsic cue-focal product incongruity on consumers' product evaluations. Experiment 1 found that consumers who possess high product knowledge notice subtle differences in congruity across sponsored products that are a good, moderate, or bad fit, unlike consumers who possess low product knowledge. Therefore, high knowledge consumers' sensory evaluations were enhanced by perceived moderate incongruity. Experiment 2 hypothesized that schema activation could lead to participants demonstrating the moderate schema incongruity effect, regardless of their level of product knowledge; however, this hypothesis was not supported. These results provide evidence that consumers respond to product-extrinsic cue incongruity differently than product-intrinsic cue incongruity.

INTRODUCTION

Do consumers *perceive* that wine tastes better when it is sponsored by a golfer, such as Mike Weir, or a hockey player, such as Wayne Gretzky? The objective taste profile of a product, as determined by certain ingredients, such as sugar and acid levels (Harker et al. 2004), does not change based on the product's sponsor. However, consumers' perceived match between the product and any one of its associations may affect their subjective consumption experience, and, ultimately, their subjective perceptions of the product's taste. This research seeks to determine whether consumers' consumption experience will be influenced by the level of incongruity between the product and an extrinsic cue, which is a result of marketing activities (Olson and Jacoby 1972) and whether their consumption experience will affect their willingness to buy and pay for the product. The match, or congruity, between an object, such as a product, and a related association is determined by the degree of fit or lack of fit (Mandler 1982).

Intuitively, it may seem that consumers would prefer a product when its associations, such as its brand name (e.g., Pelee Island label vs. Fat Bastard label), fit in an obvious manner with the category of the product. However, there is a vast amount of research on the topic of schema incongruity that supports a view contrary to this intuitive appeal (Mandler 1982; Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989; Peracchio and Tybout 1996). For example, participants' intent to use a product, appraisal of quality potential, and brand recall are greater when there is only a partial match between a product and its association (i.e., the match seems moderately incongruent) compared to when there is either a complete match or a complete mismatch (Noseworthy, Finlay, and Islam 2010). To illustrate, when participants were given booklets containing information about either methods to serve steak or the importance of vitamin D, prepared by either the Dairy

Association or Coppertone, participants gave higher preference ratings to the moderately incongruent pairing (vitamin D booklet prepared by Coppertone, steak booklet prepared by the Dairy Association), compared to the congruent pairing (vitamin D booklet prepared by the Dairy Association) or the highly incongruent pairing (steak booklet prepared by Coppertone; Meyers-Levy, Louie, and Curren 1994). Therefore, consumers' product evaluations are heavily influenced by product associations that are a result of marketing activities; this study seeks to determine whether consumers' sensory evaluations also influenced by perceived incongruity between a product and its sponsor or co-brand.

Sponsor and co-brand partnerships are used as marketing strategies to differentiate a firm's product from their competitors' and to send product quality signals to consumers (Meenaghan 2001; Rao, Qu, and Ruekert 1999). However, not all partnerships are exactly fitting; for example, athletes have forged partnerships with various products that are not sports-related (e.g., Mario Andretti and wine, Lance Armstrong and cereal). Given the variety of partnerships between celebrities and endorsed products, would consumers rate a product's sensory qualities (i.e., taste) higher when the product's association (an extrinsic cue) is a more or less logical fit to the product? In other words, which sponsored wine would consumers enjoy more: one partnered with Mike Weir (golfer), or one partnered with Wayne Gretzky (hockey player)? Given that golf is perceived as a more prestigious and luxurious sport than hockey, and thus is a better match with wine, which is an hedonic product, would consumers enjoy the Mike Weir wine over the Wayne Gretzky wine?

The degree of congruity between a product and its sponsor or co-brand tends to influence consumers' product evaluations, especially considering that consumers can only evaluate quality standards after a consumption experience (Kolyesnikova, Dodd, and Duhan 2008). Additionally,

the degree of sponsor and co-brand recognition tends to enhance both evaluations of the focal product and the sponsor and co-brand (Gwinner 1997; Meenaghan 2001). As such, Experiment 1 partnered athletes of varying degrees of fit with wine (congruent, moderately incongruent, and highly incongruent), but who were not perceived different in terms of liking and familiarity. The results demonstrate that there was an interaction between congruity level and knowledge level: participants who were highly knowledgeable about wine gave the highest product evaluations to the moderately incongruent athlete-wine pairing, whereas low knowledge participants' product evaluations did not differ across congruity level. Experiment 2 sought to determine whether participants' level of schema activation would result in higher evaluations for the moderately incongruent athlete-wine pairing, regardless of their higher level of product knowledge. As such, Experiment 2 primed participants with a sponsor or product prime, to make the respective schema more active. However, there was no interaction between congruity level and prime condition: participants' product evaluations, in both the product prime and sponsor prime conditions, did not differ across congruity levels.

The rest of this thesis will be organized as follows. First, theoretical contributions and managerial implications of this study will be discussed. Second, literature on the moderate schema incongruity effect will be reviewed and hypotheses predicting the influence of perceived schema incongruity between an extrinsic cue and a product on taste perceptions will be developed. Next, the two main studies will be discussed. The results of Experiment 1 did not support the study's hypothesis that there would be a main effect of perceived incongruity on participants' product evaluations of sponsored products. The results did support the hypothesis that there would be an interaction effect between participants' level of product knowledge and perceived incongruity on product evaluations. The results of Experiment 2 supported neither the

hypothesis that there would be a main effect of perceived incongruity on participants' product evaluations nor the hypothesis that there would be an interaction effect between participants whose sponsor schema was the most active and participants' whose product schema was the most active. This thesis will conclude with a general discussion, which includes theoretical and managerial implications, as well as directions for future research.

Theoretical Contributions and Managerial Implications

Consumers of different levels of product knowledge rely on extrinsic and intrinsic cues differently (Chaiken and Trope 1999; Rao and Monroe 1988). This suggests that there is reason to believe that the way consumers will react to product-extrinsic cue incongruity will also be substantially different than the way they react to product-intrinsic cue incongruity. Therefore these studies seek to demonstrate that subtle differences in perceived incongruity between a product and one of its *extrinsic* cues, such as its sponsor or co-brand, greatly influences participants' liking of the product and, in turn, their purchase behaviour. This is a new area of research because previous studies on schema incongruity, in general, have not examined the moderating effects of product knowledge on consumer evaluations of a product. In addition, previous incongruity studies on taste evaluations have manipulated incongruity between an *intrinsic* cue and the focal product. Examining the influence of perceived incongruity on taste evaluations is an important contribution to both consumer behaviour and cognitive psychology literatures.

It is important for marketers to understand how consumers react to perceived incongruity between a product and the product's extrinsic cues because marketers could make better

branding decisions regarding their product's sponsorship and co-branding opportunities. The fact that consumers consider marketing information to be valuable (Calfee and Ringold 1994) suggests that consumers' purchase decisions may be influenced by their perceived product-sponsor fit. By gaining an understanding of how perceived incongruity affects consumers, marketers can develop an advantage over their competitors. For example, by making slight changes in branding decisions, such as choosing the best-matched athlete as a product's sponsor, marketers could positively influence consumers' attitudes toward their brand. Consumers' satisfaction with a consumption experience can be enhanced by a product's extrinsic cues (Castriota-Scanderbeg et al. 2005). When consumers are satisfied with a product, not only will they be more likely to purchase the product again, but they will also recommend the product to others (Newman and Werbel 1973; Swan and Oliver 1989). Therefore, by understanding how consumers react to product-sponsor incongruity, marketers could enhance consumers' product evaluations and purchase behaviour toward their brands and products.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section will review theory on schema incongruity by discussing how consumers perceive different degrees of fit between an object, such as a product, and its association, and how perceived fit or lack of fit enhances consumers' affect toward the object. This section will also discuss how congruent and incongruent co-branded and sponsored products can influence consumers' product and sensory evaluations, as well as how consumers' level of product knowledge can interact with perceived congruity.

Schema Incongruity Processing Theory

The way in which certain products are marketed can lead consumers to perceive these products as either congruent or incongruent based on consumers' schema for the product category. For example, Orangina is positioned as a soft drink and has attributes associated with—and thus congruent with—the soft drink schema, such as carbonation and preservatives. However, Orangina also has an attribute not included in—and thus incongruent with—the soft drink schema, namely fruit juice. Moderate incongruity, created by a partial match between a product and its association, may lead to a more positive evaluation than will either a pure match or mismatch.

Mandler (1982) theorized that responding to different levels of schema incongruity influences one's response toward an object, such a product (e.g., Orangina). A schema is an individual's knowledge structure of an object, and serves as a frame of reference in forming judgments. Activation of a schema occurs when an object stimulates a concept or feature that is stored in an individual's memory (Cohen and Ebbesen 1979). For example, when a consumer sees a bottle of Orangina, their soft drink schema is activated, and concepts within this schema, such as carbonation, sweet, preservatives, and cola, come to mind. The level of congruity or incongruity is determined by the degree of match or mismatch between the attributes of an object and the related schema (e.g., the fit between the product or brand, and the product category schema; Lee and Schumann 2004; Mandler 1982; Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989; Stayman et al. 1992).

Congruity occurs when an object and the activated schema match perfectly. A consumer likely perceives Coca-Cola to be congruent with their soft drink schema, because this product does not possess any features that mismatch with the product category. *High incongruity* occurs

when an object and the activated schema are a complete mismatch. Such information can only be reconciled through a fundamental change to the existing cognitive structure or simply cannot be resolved. For example, Blue Sky is a soft drink brand which possesses very general characteristics of other soft drinks, such as carbonation, but this brand also does not contain preservative and is all natural, which are characteristic that is completely incongruent with other soft drinks. Therefore, a consumer will likely perceive Blue Sky to be highly incongruent with their soft drink schema. In order to reconcile this perceived incongruity, the consumer can redefine their soft drink schema by thinking that specialty soft drinks, like Blue Sky, can contain all natural ingredients (Mandler 1982; Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989).

Moderate incongruity occurs when an object and the activated schema are a partial match, but can be resolved successfully without prompting a significant change in the individual's existing cognitive structure. For example, a consumer likely perceives Orangina to be moderately incongruent with their soft drink schema, as it contains features that are both congruent and incongruent with soft drinks (carbonation and fruit juice, respectively). Resolution of moderately incongruent information is achieved by assimilating, sub-typing, or activating an alternative schema. *Assimilation* occurs when an individual places the moderately incongruent information into their existing schema, by thinking that Orangina is just another brand of soft drink. *Subtyping* occurs when an individual filters out incongruity and encodes it as a special case, by thinking Orangina is a soft drink, but one that just happens to also have fruit juice; this results in the creation of a subcategory within the schema. *Activating an alternative schema* occurs when an individual uses another existing schema in order to understand the similarities between the incongruent information and the existing schema; the consumer would think that

Orangina is not really a soft drink, it is more like a fruit juice that has carbonation (Lee and Schumann 2004; Mandler 1982; Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989; Taylor and Crocker 1981).

The level of schema congruity between an object and its association influences both the valence (positive or negative evaluation) and degree (intense or mild evaluation) to which an individual affectively responds to an object (Mandler 1982). Individuals do not perceive congruity—something familiar—as surprising, which results in no significant change to their current affective state. Conversely, individuals perceive moderate incongruity as surprising, which results in a significant change to their affective state: the mismatch of information increases the amount of cognitive processing and elaboration, which is necessary in order to resolve the incongruity. The increase in cognitive elaboration in turn increases the intensity of the individual's affective reactions and arousal. Given the slight mismatch of information, individuals are likely to easily resolve moderately incongruent information; thus, individuals tend to experience positive affective responses toward the object.

Similar to moderate incongruity, individuals perceive highly incongruent information as surprising, resulting in a change to their current affective state: the incongruity increases the individual's cognitive elaboration, which in turn increases the intensity of their affective reactions and arousal. However, unlike moderately incongruent information, individuals cannot easily resolve highly incongruent information and individuals tend to experience frustration and negative affective responses toward the object. Although highly incongruent information may lead to a greater amount of cognitive processing and elaboration than moderately incongruent information, the amount of processing may actually be frustrating for the individual (Mandler 1982; Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989; Peracchio and Tybout 1996).

Only moderately incongruent product-sponsor pairings can both be easily resolved and increase cognitive processing and affective reactions. Congruent product-sponsor pairings do not increase consumers' affective reactions, and highly incongruent pairings cannot be easily resolved. Therefore, consumers' valence and degree of evaluations are expected to be positively influenced and enhanced when presented with a moderately incongruent product-sponsor pairing.

Co-Branding and Sponsorship

When a product partners with a sponsor or co-brand, incongruity is automatically created between these two partners; depending on the product's partner, the fit may be congruent, moderately incongruent, or highly incongruent. Consumers' product evaluations are influenced by the level of congruity between a product and its sponsor or co-brand. Sponsored and co-branded partnerships can result in beneficial outcomes, such as product differentiation and an increase perceived quality (Meenaghan 2001; Rao et al.1999). However, any potential benefit may be weakened or eliminated if the partnership is not the proper fit (Gwinner 1997; Helmig et al. 2008).

In fact, some literature suggests that extrinsic cues may not influence consumers' product evaluations. For example, the Persuasion Knowledge Model theorizes that a consumer's personal accumulated knowledge about and experiences with a persuasion agent's tactics, coupled with their motivation to use this knowledge will lead to the development of coping mechanisms to deal with these persuasion tactics (e.g., consumers may completely ignore or selectively discount an advertising campaign, a celebrity endorser, or sales people; Friestad and Wright 1994). Even

though consumers are consistently sceptical toward advertising and assume that advertising seeks to persuade them for the benefit of the advertiser, consumers, nevertheless, still believe that advertising provides useful and valuable information (Calfee and Ringold 1994).

To this end, research on schema incongruity that has examined the influence of a persuasion agent, such as a sponsor or co-brand, on participants' product evaluations have found that participants actually do not ignore the agent's tactics. For example, one study, which examined partnerships between celebrity athletes (Andre Agassi, tennis player; Mark McGwire, baseball player) and various products found that the moderately incongruent product pairing (cell phone) received greater purchase intentions than both the congruent and highly incongruent product pairings (sports drink and vacuum, respectively; Lee and Thorson 2008).

Although Lee and Thorson (2008) examined the influence of perceived product-extrinsic cue incongruity on participants' product evaluations, the effects of perceived incongruity on participants' *taste* evaluations still remain unclear. The general finding that the moderately incongruent pairing receives the highest preference ratings has been found in consumers' sensory evaluations of food products (Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989; Peracchio and Tybout 1996). However, these studies manipulated product-intrinsic cue incongruity and examined the effect on participants' taste evaluations

Taste Perception and Product Knowledge

Congruity influences how individuals perceive their sensations. Although individuals objectively receive and process information in their environment through their senses (smell, taste, hearing, touch, and sight), they subjectively interpret these sensations as perceptions (see

Peck and Childers 2008 for a detailed review of perception and consumer behaviour). For example, when congruity was established between the ambient scent of a store and the product category (e.g., chocolate scent paired with a candy assortment, floral scent paired with a flower arrangement), participants engaged in variety-seeking behaviour and spent more time processing information than participants who were in an environment with an incongruent ambient scent (chocolate scent paired with a flower arrangement, floral scent paired with a candy assortment) or in an environment with no ambient scent (Mitchell, Kahn, and Knasko 1995).

Consumers differ in the amount and type of perceptual knowledge they possess: aficionados have extensive perceptual knowledge, which they have gained through high product usage frequency, but have limited conceptual knowledge, as they have little general knowledge of the product category; whereas experts have extensive perceptual and conceptual knowledge, and novices have limited perceptual and conceptual knowledge (Latour and Latour 1994; Park, Mothersbaugh, and Feick 1994). Given this difference in knowledge, perceptual experts and novices not only experience their perceptions differently (Castriota-Scanderbeg et al. 2005), but also use a different number and type of heuristics when evaluating products (Chaiken and Trope 1999).

On the one hand, high knowledge consumers possess adequate knowledge to discount simple heuristics when forming attitudes. That is, when consuming a product, high knowledge consumers rely more on intrinsic product cues (e.g., ingredients, colour, texture) and less on extrinsic product cues (e.g., price, brand name, sponsor or co-brand) to assess product quality (Chaiken and Trope 1999). Conversely, consumers who are less knowledgeable about a product use a greater number of heuristics when forming attitudes. Therefore, when consuming a product, low knowledge consumers rely more on and are more persuaded by extrinsic cues when

gauging product quality, as they are not sufficiently knowledgeable about the product's intrinsic cues (Chaiken and Trope 1999; Rao and Monroe 1988). For example, when participants evaluated wine and were provided with information about the wine's price and oak level, low knowledge participants' evaluations were positively influenced by a greater price tag (\$5 vs. \$15 per bottle) but were not affected by oak level (0% oak level vs. 30% oak level). The opposite trend was observed for high knowledge participants' evaluations (Lockshin and Rhodus 1993).

On the other hand, reacting to schema incongruent information implies that a consumer first has sufficient knowledge to even notice that the information is indeed either congruent or incongruent (Fiske and Taylor 1991). Therefore, if a consumer has a very rudimentary knowledge structure about a product and has had very few consumption experiences with a product, they may not perceive any new piece of information about the product to be incongruent. Conversely, if a consumer has a very extensive knowledge structure about a product and frequently consumes a product, they are likely to be very apt to notice and process any schema incongruent information. Therefore, there are two types of approaches and reactions that high and low knowledge consumers may experience when consuming sponsor-product pairings of varying degrees of congruity. As such, this study seeks to determine which approach will be supported. See Appendix A for a table summarizing previous research on co-branding and sponsorship, taste perception and product knowledge.

This section reviewed schema incongruity by discussing that the match between an object, soft drink brands such as Coca-Cola, Orangina, and Blue Sky, and the activated schema leads to perceived congruity or incongruity. Moderate incongruity, which can be easily resolved, increases consumers' cognitive elaboration and the intensity of their affective reactions (Mandler 1982). In line with this theorizing, studies have found that consumer's give the highest

evaluations to moderately incongruent co-branded and sponsored products (Lee and Thorson 2008). Additionally, consumers' level of perceptual knowledge influences their product evaluation for congruent, moderately incongruent, and highly incongruent products (Peracchio and Tybout 1996).

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Evaluating and judging a food or beverage product does not solely depend on one's gustatory and olfactory perceptions of the product's intrinsic cues; product evaluations and judgments are also influenced by marketing activities (extrinsic cues; Olson and Jacoby 1972; Zeithaml 1988) and depend on one's schema network (Collins and Loftus 1975; Peracchio and Tybout 1996; Quillian 1962, 1967). As such, the associations in participants' schema will influence their perceived sponsor-product incongruity and, in turn, their product evaluations.

The level of knowledge that a consumer has about an object, such as a product, influences the type and the configuration of associations in their schema (Chi and Koeske 1983; Peracchio and Tybout 1996; see Figure 1 for a representation of associations within a schema of a hypothetical consumer, adapted from Collins and Loftus 1975). Low knowledge consumers have a rudimentary knowledge structure and few linkages between information (see Figure 2 for a representation of a schema with a few associations, where "A" represents a product, such as wine, and "B" represents a product association, such as a brand name or athlete sponsor; Peracchio and Tybout 1996). Given low knowledge consumers' limited number of schema associations, each link within their current schema will correspondingly have a stronger relational link to the concept, as indicated by dark lines in Figure 2 (Collins and Loftus 1975;

Quillian 1962, 1967). For example, when sampling a wine sponsored by an athlete, low knowledge participants, who have only a few associations linked to their wine schema, will not perceive the new athlete-sponsor association to be surprising, because each association, including the athlete sponsor as the wine's brand name, is highly essential and important to their wine schema (compared to high knowledge participants). Given that the athlete-wine sponsor association is not perceived to be surprising, there will be no difference in low knowledge participants' ratings of liking and willingness to buy and pay across all sponsor-product pairs, and will not demonstrate the moderate schema incongruity effect.

Conversely, high knowledge consumers have an extensive and elaborate knowledge structure (see Figure 3 for a representation of a schema with a many associations; Peracchio and Tybout 1996). High knowledge consumers have numerous schema associations; each link within their schema correspondingly has a weaker relational link to the concept, as indicated by thin lines in Figure 3 (Collins and Loftus 1975; Quillian 1962, 1967). For example, when sampling an athlete sponsored wine, high knowledge participants, who have many associations linked to their wine schema, will perceive the athlete-sponsor association to be incongruent. Given that any one association is neither essential nor important to their wine schema, high knowledge participants will perceive this pairing to be surprising and salient (compared to low knowledge participants). However, a congruent athlete-wine sponsor pairing will not be sufficiently novel and will not produce intense affect toward the pairing. A highly incongruent athlete-wine sponsor pairing will be too difficult to resolve and will produce negative affect toward the pairing. A moderately incongruent athlete-wine sponsor pairing will be both novel and easy to resolve, and will produce intense positive affect toward the pairing. Therefore, high knowledge participants will

give higher ratings of liking and willingness to buy and pay for the moderately incongruent pairing, and will demonstrate the moderate schema incongruity effect. Thus:

H1a: When sampling a sponsored or co-branded product and there is incongruity between the product and this extrinsic cue, participants will provide the highest product evaluations to the moderately incongruent product pairing.

H1b: Participants will have the highest preference toward the moderately incongruent product pairing.

H2a: High knowledge participants will provide the highest product evaluations to the moderately incongruent product pairing, whereas this effect will not be observed among low knowledge participants.

H2b: High knowledge participants will have greater preferences for the moderately incongruent product pairing, whereas this effect will not be observed among low knowledge participants.

EXPERIMENT 1

A pilot study was conducted to determine a set of three athletes, either male or female, who did not differ based on liking and familiarity, but matched differently with wine (congruent, moderately incongruent, or highly incongruent); the three athletes found in this pilot study would then be used as the sponsors paired with wine in Experiment 1. Following the pilot study, the main study was conducted; the goal of the main study was to test H1a, H1b, H2a, and H2b: does participants' perceived sponsor-product incongruity affect their taste evaluations, willingness to buy, willingness to pay, and preferred sample in a consumption experience, and is this effect moderated by their level of product knowledge?

Wine was used as the focal product due to three important reasons: wine is an experience product and factors other than the intrinsic quality of the product strongly affect consumers' purchasing behaviour (Gergaud and Livat 2007; Kolyesnikova et al. 2008), there is an

established questionnaire which can accurately identify high and low knowledge consumers (Hughson and Boakes 2001), and the level of objective product knowledge can easily be used as a moderator.

Well-known celebrity athletes were used as sponsors and co-brands of wine because they have a narrow brand character: the sport in which the athlete competes distinctly defines their athlete-sponsor schema, compared to other types of celebrities who have a less distinct schema (e.g., actors are featured in various types of acting roles and movies). All else equal, the more a consumer is familiar with and likes a sponsor, the more positive the consumer's attitude and behaviour toward the sponsored product will be (Meenaghan 2001); therefore, it is important to control for participants' liking and familiarity of athletes. It is expected that athletes who compete in more prestigious sports (e.g., tennis, golf) will be more congruent with wine than athletes who compete in aggressive sports (e.g., wrestling, hockey). See Appendix B for a summary of all pilot and main studies conducted for this thesis.

Pilot Study Method

Participants. Twelve participants, from Brock University, took part in an Athlete Ranking Study. In return, participants received course credit. Participants signed up via an online registration system.

Design and Procedure. The pilot study employed a within-subjects design with 10 athletes. Participants were informed that they would be given a survey that contained various male and female athletes (see Appendix C), and asked to rank how much they liked (1 = Most Liked) and how familiar (1 = Most Familiar) they were with each athlete, as well as whether they

thought the athletes would be a “good,” “medium,” or “bad” match should they become a sponsor of wine (1 = Best Match; see Appendix D). The order in which male and female athletes were presented within the survey was counterbalanced. Additionally, participants completed a word association question; this was used to measure participants’ perception of wine. Last, participants completed an open-ended question that asked them to explain the method in which they ranked athletes based on their match with wine. After participants completed the survey, they were thanked and given a feedback form about the study.

Pilot Study Results

There were various different combinations for comparing the significance values for liking, familiarity, and congruity rankings for all the athletes. There was only one set of three athletes, which included Vijay Singh, Jeremy Wotherspoon, and Dwayne “The Rock” Johnson, that met the necessary criteria. All other sets of three athletes either had a significant difference in liking or familiarity, or had no significant difference congruity. Thus, only the one set with no significant differences in liking and familiarity rankings, and significant differences in congruity rankings will be reported.

Male Athletes. A one-way ANOVA with a Fisher’s LSD post hoc comparison was conducted with male athletes as the independent variable and liking ranking as the dependent variable. The analysis revealed that there was no significant difference in liking among Vijay Singh, Jeremy Wotherspoon, and Dwayne “The Rock” Johnson ($M_{\text{Singh}} = 6.83$, $M_{\text{Wotherspoon}} = 6.50$, $M_{\text{The Rock}} = 7.08$; all $p > .61$).

A one-way ANOVA with a Fisher's LSD post hoc comparison was also conducted with male athletes as the independent variable and familiarity ranking as the dependent variable. The analysis revealed that there was no significant difference in familiarity among Vijay Singh, Jeremy Wotherspoon, and Dwayne "The Rock" Johnson ($M_{\text{Singh}} = 8.08$, $M_{\text{Wotherspoon}} = 7.08$, $M_{\text{The Rock}} = 6.67$; all $p > .17$).

A one-way ANOVA with a Fisher's LSD post hoc comparison was conducted with male athletes as the independent variable and matches with wine ranking as the dependent variable. The analysis revealed that there was a significant difference based on the athlete's fit with wine among Vijay Singh, Jeremy Wotherspoon, and Dwayne "The Rock" Johnson ($M_{\text{Singh}} = 3.08$, $M_{\text{Wotherspoon}} = 5.83$, $M_{\text{The Rock}} = 8.58$; all $p < .01$).

Thus, there was no difference in liking and familiarity, but a difference in congruity with wine among these three athletes: Singh is a good match with wine, Wotherspoon is a moderate match, and The Rock is a bad match. Further support is given to this conclusion by looking at participants' open-ended responses for their ranking rationale: "the more elegant the sport, the better the ranking," "I see Vijay as representing a more luxurious beverage," "sports that have too much physical contact seem like they would become a partner with a beer company," and "wine is a sophisticated drink and I don't see The Rock drinking wine at a dinner party".

Female Athletes. The same analyses were conducted for female athletes. However, a set of three athletes that matched the required criteria (no significant differences for liking and familiarity rankings, and a significance difference for congruity rankings) were not found.

Experiment 1 Method

Participants. One hundred and fifteen participants (52 male, 63 female), from Brock University and the local community, took part in a Wine Evaluation Study. In return, participants received either course credit or \$5. Their mean age was 22.55 years (Min = 19, local legal drinking age; Max = 64; SD = 5.43). Participants signed up via an online registration system.

Design and Procedure. The experiment employed a within-subjects design with three levels of congruity (matches with wine: high, Vijay Singh, vs. moderate, Jeremy Wotherspoon, vs. low, Dwayne “The Rock” Johnson) between wine and its sponsor. Participants were asked to sample three wines and each wine sample was associated with one of the three athletes. The order in which participants sampled the wines was counterbalanced (see Appendix E) and participants were randomly assigned to one of these six orders. Participants’ product knowledge was measured (see Appendix F; Hughson and Boakes 2001).

At a tasting station (which included a touch-screen laptop), participants were provided with three 20 millilitre samples of wine (unbeknownst to participants, all samples were the *same* wine poured from the *same* bottle), an empty cup in which to spit the wine, as well as a cup filled with water and a small bowl with unsalted soda crackers to cleanse their palate (Ross and Weller 2007). The experimenter informed participants that they would taste three different brands of the same grape varietal of wine. Participants were led through the experiment by computer-driven instructions.

Each wine glass had a sticker on its base, indicating it as sample “1,” “2,” or “3”; other than a Petri dish on top of the glass, to prevent anything from falling into the wine, there was nothing else on the wine glass. For each sample, computer instructions informed participants of

its sponsor and the sport in which the athlete sponsor competed (i.e., “Pick up sample 1. This wine is sponsored by Vijay Singh (golfer).”); participants were also provided with proper wine tasting instructions by the computer instructions (i.e., “Swirl the wine for five seconds, take a sip, swirl the wine for another 10 seconds, and take another sip.”; Ross and Weller 2007). On the laptop, participants answered survey questions, which consisted of rating the wine samples based on their overall liking (“Overall, how much do you like this wine sample?,” 1 = Not At All to 7 = Very Much), willingness to pay (WTP; open ended question “How much would you be willing to pay for one bottle of this wine”; Siegrist and Cousin 2009), and willingness to buy (WTB; “How likely are you to buy this wine?,” 1 = Not At All to 7 = Very Much; Wszelaki et al. 2005). Participants answered a multiple choice question regarding their one most preferred wine sample (“Which wine sample do you like the most?”; Mantonakis et al. 2009), and responded to an open-ended question to specify the reason for their selection (e.g., “Why did you select the Vijay Singh (golfer) sample as your most preferred wine?”).

Also included in the survey on the laptop, participants answered demographic and lifestyle questions, including the last time they purchased wine and how much they generally like red wine (numberless 11-point scale; Barefoot et al. 2002; Cade et al. 2004; Melcher and Schooler 1996)¹, as well as a wine knowledge scale (see Appendix F; Hughson and Boakes 2001). Participants also answered open-ended questions about why they thought the athletes sponsored the wine and how much they thought the athletes were paid to sponsor the wine (e.g., “Why do you think Vijay Singh (golfer) sponsored this wine sample?”, “How much do you think Vijay Singh (golfer) was paid to sponsor the wine?”). Participants ranked their liking and familiarity of various male athletes, and degree of fit should they sponsor wine (i.e., main study

¹ No systematic effects of demographic or lifestyle variables were observed, so these variables are not discussed further.

participants completed the same pilot questions as participants in the Athlete Ranking Study, but ranked only male athletes).

Upon completion of the study, the experimenter offered participants a slice of cheese and crackers to eat (to absorb the alcohol) while they read the study's feedback form. Before leaving, participants were given a breathalyser test by the experimenter to ensure their blood alcohol content was at a legal limit. Participants were given their consent sheet (participation credit) or \$5, and were thanked by the experimenter for participating.

Experiment 1 Results

Data from 14 participants were removed because they properly guessed the hypothesis, guessed that all wine samples were identical, or had missing data; the following analyses are based on 101 participants. Given that there was no reference point for the WTP variable, there was kurtosis and skewness in the data; therefore, this variable was log transformed and analyses for $\log(\text{WTP})$ will be reported, unless mentioned otherwise (Eisenbeis 1977).

Congruity Manipulation Check. All three athletes were significantly different from one another based on perceived congruity ($M_{\text{Singh}} = 3.33$, $M_{\text{Wotherspoon}} = 4.92$, $M_{\text{The Rock}} = 6.67$; all $p < .001$). Thus, the manipulation for perceived congruity was replicated: Vijay Singh was perceived as the best match with wine, Jeremy Wotherspoon as a good match, and Dwayne "The Rock" Johnson as the worst match.

Wine Presentation Order. A mixed model ANOVA with congruity level (low, moderate, high) as the within-subjects variable and wine presentation order (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6) as the between-

subjects variable was conducted. There were no effects of presentation order on overall liking, WTB, or log(WTP) (all $p > .48$). Thus, order will not be discussed further.

Sensory Evaluations. To examine H1a, that there will be an effect of perceived incongruity on participants' evaluations of sponsored products, a repeated measures ANOVA with congruity level (low, moderate, high) as the within-subjects variable was conducted. The analysis found that there was no significant main effect for overall liking ($F(2,200) = .89, p > .41, \text{MSE} = 1.24$; see Figure 4), WTB ($F(2,184) = .6, p > .50, \text{MSE} = 1.86$; see Figure 5) and log(WTP) ($F(2,188) = .63, p > .63, \text{MSE} = .01$; see Figure 6). These results do not support H1a, as there was no effect of sponsor-product incongruity on participants' product evaluations.

Insert Figures 4 – 6 about here

To examine H2a, that there will be an interaction effect between participants' level of product knowledge, participants were first categorized into low knowledge ($n = 64$) or high knowledge ($n = 37$) groups based on their wine knowledge score (Hughson and Boakes 2001). The measures of central tendency for knowledge scores are grouped close together ($M = 6.19$, Median = 6, Mode = 6, Min = 3, Max = 12, SD = 1.72); this suggests that the shape of the distribution of knowledge scores approximates a normal distribution (Burns and Burns 2008). Given that the central tendency for wine knowledge is grouped around six, using a score of seven or more to categorize high wine knowledge participants is an appropriately strict measure of knowledge.

Second, a mixed model ANOVA with congruity level (low, moderate, high) as the within-subjects variable and knowledge score (low, high) as the between-subjects variable was conducted. The analysis found that there was a significant interaction for overall liking ($F(2,198)$

= 3.38, $p < .04$, MSE = 1.21; see Figure 7), WTB ($F(2,183) = 3.30$, $p < .05$, MSE = 1.81; see Figure 8) and log(WTP) ($F(2,186) = 3.36$, $p < .04$, MSE = .01; see Figure 9 for raw WTP data).

Insert Figures 7 – 9 about here

To further investigate these interaction effects, paired-samples t -tests were run. Ratings for overall liking among participants in the high wine knowledge score group were significantly higher for the moderately incongruent pairing ($M_{\text{HK Wotherspoon}} = 4.05$) than their ratings for both the congruent pairing ($M_{\text{HK Singh}} = 3.46$; $t(36) = 2.83$, $p < .01$) and the highly incongruent pairing ($M_{\text{HK The Rock}} = 3.41$; $t(36) = 2.16$, $p < .04$). There were no significant differences in high wine knowledge score participants' overall liking ratings for the congruent and highly incongruent pairings ($t(36) = .19$, $p > .85$). Ratings for overall liking among participants in the low knowledge wine score group were not significantly different across congruity levels (all $p > .39$).

Ratings for WTB among participants in the high wine knowledge score group were significantly higher for the moderately incongruent pairing ($M_{\text{HK Wotherspoon}} = 3.51$) than their WTB rating for the congruent pairing ($M_{\text{HK Singh}} = 2.86$; $t(36) = 2.21$, $p < .04$); there was a difference in high wine knowledge score participants' WTB rating between the moderately incongruent pairing and the highly incongruent pairing ($M_{\text{HK The Rock}} = 2.84$; $t(36) = 1.75$, $p < .09$), although this difference failed to reach conventional levels of statistical significance. There were no significant differences in high wine knowledge score participants' WTB rating for the congruent and highly incongruent pairing ($t(36) = .09$, $p > .92$). Ratings for WTB among participants in the low wine knowledge score group were not significantly different across congruity levels (all $p > .22$).

Ratings for WTP among participants in the high wine knowledge score group was significantly higher for the moderately incongruent pairing ($M_{HK \text{ Raw Wotherspoon}} = \14.95 , $M_{HK \text{ Log(Wotherspoon)}} = 1.14$) than their WTP for the congruent pairing ($M_{HK \text{ Raw Singh}} = \12.62 , $M_{HK \text{ Log(Singh)}} = 1.08$; $t(35) = 2.86$, $p < .01$); there was a difference in high wine knowledge score participants' WTP between the moderately incongruent pairing and the highly incongruent pairing ($M_{HK \text{ Raw The Rock}} = \12.62 , $M_{HK \text{ Log(The Rock)}} = 1.09$; $t(34) = 1.89$, $p < .07$), although this difference was not at the .05 level. There were no significant differences in high wine knowledge score participants' WTP for the congruent and highly incongruent pairing ($t(34) = -.26$, $p > .79$). Ratings for WTP among participants in the low wine knowledge score group were not significantly different across congruity levels (all $p > .21$). These results support H2a: participants' level of product knowledge interacted with their perceptions of incongruity when rating their overall liking, and willingness to buy and pay for wines sponsored by athletes of different congruity levels. More specifically, high wine knowledge score participants gave the highest evaluations to the moderately incongruent athlete-wine pairing, whereas there was no difference in low wine knowledge score participants' product evaluations across congruity levels.

Preferred Sample. To examine H1b and H2b, that there will be main and interaction effects on preferred choice (see Figure 10 and 11, respectively), chi-square tests were conducted. Overall, participants' selection based on incongruity revealed no significant differences ($\chi^2(2) = 1.33$, $p > .51$) in their selection for the congruent ($n = 30$), moderately incongruent ($n = 39$), and highly incongruent pairings ($n = 32$) as their most preferred sample. High wine knowledge score participants' selection based on incongruity revealed no significant differences ($\chi^2(2) = 3.95$, $p > .13$) in their selection for the congruent ($n = 9$), moderately incongruent ($n = 18$), and highly

incongruent pairings ($n = 10$) as their most preferred sample.² Low wine knowledge score participants also revealed no significant differences in their selection for the congruent ($n = 21$), moderately incongruent ($n = 21$), and highly incongruent pairings ($n = 22$; $\chi^2(2) = .03, p > .98$) as their most preferred sample. These results support neither H1b nor H2b, as there was no main nor interaction effect of sponsor-product incongruity on participants' selection for their most preferred sample.

Insert Figure 10 and 11 about here

Sponsorship Attributions. When participants were asked the reason why they thought Vijay Singh, Jeremy Wotherspoon, and Dwayne “The Rock” Johnson entered into the partnership, they responded with one of four reasons: like the taste of the wine ($n = 38, 38, 30$, respectively), advance career/personal profit ($n = 28, 40, 47$, respectively), both like the taste and advance career ($n = 10, 12, 10$, respectively), or do not know the reason ($n = 10, 11, 9$, respectively). In order to analyze participants' sponsorship attributions, their open-ended responses were dummy-coded. Chi-square analyses on participants' sponsorship attributions revealed that participants were more likely to think that all three athletes became sponsors because the sponsors either liked the taste of the wine, or wanted to benefit their career (all $p > .21$). There was no significant difference in terms of how much participants thought the athletes were paid for the sponsorship ($M_{\text{Singh}} = \$1,188,173.08$; $M_{\text{Wotherspoon}} = \$612,744.81$; $M_{\text{The Rock}} = \$565,805.95$; all $p > .21$).

² Participants' reasons for having selected their most preferred sample was examined: nearly every participant chose their favourite wine because they claimed to have liked the taste the most. This also demonstrates the subtlety of the schema incongruity effect; despite the fact that all samples were the same, participants indeed thought that one sample tasted the best.

EXPERIMENT 1 DISCUSSION

The goal of Experiment 1 was to investigate whether an individual's taste evaluations, likelihood of purchase, and willingness to pay for a product, with a sponsor—an extrinsic cue—that is either a close or a bad match, or even a sponsor that is somewhere in between, would be influenced by this match. The current experiment also sought to investigate whether participants' knowledge about the product would make them more or less apt to be affected by their perceived match between the sponsor and the product. This experiment tested this research question by partnering wine with athletes of varying degrees of fit—a good fit, represented by Vijay Singh, a golfer; a moderate fit, represented by Jeremy Wotherspoon, a speed skater; and a bad fit, represented by Dwayne “The Rock” Johnson, a wrestler. Participants tasted three identical wine samples, believing that they were different wines of the same grape varietal sponsored by these athletes. Participants evaluated the wine and chose which one sample was their most preferred.

As hypothesized, the moderate schema incongruity effect was observed only among participants who scored in the high wine knowledge group. That is, high wine knowledge score participants not only liked the moderately incongruent athlete-wine pairing the most, but also had a higher willingness to pay for and buy this wine. On the other hand, the degree of fit did not affect low wine knowledge score participants' ratings, whose ratings for overall liking, and willingness to buy and pay did not differ across all three athlete-wine pairings. First, this suggests that high wine knowledge score participants had sufficient knowledge to perceive a difference in fit among the three athlete-wine pairings, whereas low wine knowledge score participants perceived all three athlete-wine pairings as not differing in fit. Second, these results show that the degree of fit—good, moderate, or bad—can substantially enhance consumers'

evaluations of sponsored products. More specifically, this experiment demonstrated that high wine knowledge score consumers' consumption experience, likelihood of purchasing the wine, and their willingness to pay for the wine are greater when their perceived product and sponsor image are somewhat discrepant with each other. Even though consumers perceived a difference in match between the sponsor who was a good fit and the sponsor who was a bad fit, high wine knowledge score consumers' product evaluations did not differ based on their perceived athlete-wine pairing fit.

Participants' attributions for the sponsorship and the sponsors' monetary gain from the partnership were investigated. Participants thought that Vijay Singh, Jeremy Wotherspoon, and Dwayne "The Rock" Johnson became sponsors because they either liked the taste of the wine, or wanted to benefit their career. Participants also did not think that there was a difference in how much all three athletes were paid for the sponsorship. Therefore, these attributions—reasons for the sponsorship and monetary gain from the sponsorship—do not provide a better explanation for the differences in liking, and willingness to buy and pay than schema incongruity.

The moderate schema incongruity effect was the best explanation for the difference in high knowledge participants' product evaluations across congruity levels. Only high knowledge score, and not low knowledge score, participants demonstrated the moderate schema incongruity effect in their evaluations of liking, and willingness to buy and pay for sponsored products. However, questions still remain: did high knowledge score participants demonstrate the moderate schema incongruity effect because of their threshold for schema activation and spread of schema activation, regardless of their higher level of product knowledge? Therefore, would manipulating participants' perceived incongruity between a product and its sponsor, such as wines sponsored by various athletes, result in higher product evaluations when their product or

sponsor schema is more active? For example, if participants are aware that athletes sponsor numerous and various types of products, they may not perceive any athlete-product pairing to be novel and incongruent. These questions are addressed in Experiment 2.

EXPERIMENT 2

In order to test address these questions, two pilot studies were conducted; the goal of the first of the two pilot studies was to develop two priming statements that differed significantly in terms of the associations that they activated in participants' memory. One priming statement is about the sponsor and aimed to make participants perceive that athletes almost never endorse wine, and the other statement is about the product and aimed to make participants perceive that wines are almost always endorsed by athletes. The goal of the second of the two pilot studies was to determine a set of three sponsors who did not differ in liking and familiarity, but who are perceived differently in terms of their match with wine, should they become a wine sponsor. Female athlete sponsors were used in order to generalize the results found with male athlete sponsors in Experiment 1. After the pilot studies were complete, Experiment 2 was conducted to determine whether participants' most active schema—either their product or sponsor schema—will interact with perceived incongruity to affect their taste evaluations, likelihood of purchase, and willingness to pay.

Hypothesis Development

A triggering condition in the external world will activate only the most active schema and, in turn, its corresponding subschemas (e.g., either the product or sponsor schema and its related associations), while all other schemas that could accomplish the same goal will be suppressed (Norman and Shallice 1986). A schema's threshold for activation not only depends on one's knowledge level (Norman and Shallice 1986) but can also be influenced by a prime (Cooper and Shallice 2000). For example, when evaluating a sponsored product, either the sponsor or product schema—which ever schema is most active—will be used for the evaluation task. A prime about a product, for example, cigars, will activate participants' cigar schema; such a prime will remind participants that cigars are almost always sponsored by actors when they are sponsored by a celebrity figure. The type of schema configuration represented by this type of prime is shown in Figure 2; the dark lines represent the few sponsors associated with cigar-sponsor partnerships. Given that the cigar prime activates a schema in which there are only a few associations, each association accounts for a large proportion of the limited schema; when a consumer is presented with one schema association (e.g., an actor as a sponsor), they will likely not be surprised by this association. As such, when a product prime activates participants' product schema and makes this schema more salient than their sponsor schema, they are expected to perceive the actor-cigar pairing to be common. Given that participants will not perceive this pairing to be novel, they are not expected to demonstrate the moderate schema incongruity effect and their ratings of liking, and willingness to buy and pay will not differ across congruity levels, regardless of their level of product knowledge.

Conversely, a prime about a sponsor, an actor such as Johnny Depp, for example, will activate participants' actor schema; such a prime will remind participants that actors sponsor numerous products, and cigars might be just one product among many products sponsored by actors. The type of schema configuration represented by this type of prime is shown in Figure 3; the thin lines represent the numerous products associated with actor-product sponsorships. Given that the actor prime activates a schema in which there are numerous associations, each association accounts for a small proportion of the extensive schema; when a consumer is presented with one schema association (e.g., a cigar as a sponsored product), they will likely be surprised by this association. Considering the many other more common and familiar products sponsored by actors (e.g., watches, cologne, etc.), an actor-cigar pairing will stand out and participants will perceive this pairing to be novel. However, participants will easily resolve the celebrity-cigar pairing (i.e., perceive the pairing to be moderately incongruent), because the prime reminds them that celebrities are known cigar sponsors. As such, when a sponsor prime activates participants' sponsor schema and makes this schema more salient than their product schema, they are expected to demonstrate the moderate schema incongruity effect by giving higher ratings for liking, willingness to buy and willingness to pay for the moderately incongruent sponsor-product pair relative to the congruent and highly incongruent product pairs, regardless of their level of product knowledge. Thus:

H4a: Participants in the sponsor prime condition will provide the highest product evaluations to the moderately incongruent product pairing, whereas this effect will not be observed among participants in the product prime condition.

H4b: Participants in the sponsor prime condition will have greater preferences for the moderately incongruent product pairing, whereas this effect will not be observed among participants in the product prime condition.

Priming Statement Pilot Study Method

Participants. Thirty six participants, from Brock University and the general community, took part in a Celebrities and Endorsements Study. In return, participants received either course credit or \$5. Participants signed up through an online registration system.

Design and Procedure. The pilot study employed a between subjects-design, with two levels of priming statements (sponsor prime vs. product prime); the sponsor prime focused on the types of products that athletes endorse and the product prime focused on the types of wine brand names. Participants were informed that they will rate how common they think certain product-celebrity pairings are in the market (1 = Almost Never to 7 = Almost Always). This pilot study employed a between-subjects design to prevent exposing participants to both priming statements in order to avoid carry over effects from the first prime to the second prime. Participants completed the survey on Qualtrics online service software and were randomly assigned to either the sponsor prime or product prime condition (see Appendix G). Upon signing up for the Celebrities and Endorsements Study, participants were provided with a website link, which directed them to the Qualtrics survey. Participants were able to complete the study at their own convenience at any computer with Internet access. The order in which the products in the sponsor prime condition and the brand names in the product prime condition was presented was randomized to eliminate any potential order effect. After participants completed the survey, they contacted the experimenter to retrieve their preferred compensation.

Priming Statement Pilot Study Results

Athlete prime participants ($n = 20$) rated how common they thought athletes entered into a sponsorship agreement with wine ($M = 2.75$; 1 = Almost Never to 7 = Almost Always), whereas wine prime participants ($n = 16$) rated how common they thought wines were sponsored by athletes ($M = 4.13$). The difference between the perceived prevalence of athletes sponsoring wine and wine being sponsored by athletes was analyzed using an independent samples t -test. The analysis revealed that there was a significance difference in participants' perception of athlete-wine sponsorship between the sponsor and product prime conditions ($t(36) = -2.17, p < .04$). As such, the sponsor prime successfully achieved its goal in making participants perceive that athletes do not frequently sponsor wine and the product prime successfully achieved its goal in making participants perceive that wine is frequently sponsored by athletes.

Female Athlete Pilot Study Method

Participants. Twenty two participants, from Brock University and the general community, took part in an Athlete Ranking Study. In return, participants either received course credit or \$5. Participants signed up via an online registration system.

Design and Procedure. This female athlete pilot study employed a similar design as the male and female athlete pilot study conducted in Experiment 1, with a few exceptions. First, a new set of athletes was used and participants ranked only female athletes (see Appendix H). Second, this current pilot study was completed online (Qualtrics software). Third, participants did not list their wine word associations.

Female Athlete Pilot Study Results

Similar to the pilot study conducted for Experiment 1, there were various different combinations for comparing the significance values for liking, familiarity, and congruity rankings for all the athletes. There was only one set of three athletes, which included Michelle Wei, Catriona Le May Doan, and Hope Solo, that met the necessary criteria. All other sets of three athletes had a significant difference in liking or familiarity rankings, or had no significant difference in congruity rankings. Thus, only the one set with no significant differences in liking and familiarity rankings, and a significant difference in congruity rankings will be reported.

A one-way ANOVA with a Fisher's LSD post hoc comparison was conducted with female athletes as the independent variable and liking ranking as the dependent variable. The analysis revealed that there were no significant differences in liking among Michelle Wei, Catriona Le May Doan, and Hope Solo ($M_{Wei} = 5.27$, $M_{Le\ May\ Doan} = 6.14$, $M_{Solo} = 6.09$; all $p > .31$).

A one-way ANOVA with a Fisher's LSD post hoc comparison was also conducted with female athletes as the independent variable and familiarity ranking as the dependent variable. The analysis revealed that there were no significant differences in familiarity among Michelle Wei, Catriona Le May Doan, and Hope Solo ($M_{Wei} = 5.23$, $M_{Le\ May\ Doan} = 5.77$, $M_{Solo} = 5.59$; all $p > .52$).

A one-way ANOVA with a Fisher's LSD post hoc comparison was conducted with female athletes as the independent variable and matches with wine ranking as the dependent variable. The analysis revealed that there was a significant difference in terms of the matches with wine among Michelle Wei, Catriona Le May Doan, and Hope Solo ($M_{Wei} = 3.59$, $M_{Le\ May\ Doan} = 3.59$, $M_{Solo} = 3.59$; all $p < .05$).

$M_{\text{Doan}} = 5.23$, $M_{\text{Solo}} = 6.91$; all $p < .05$). Thus, there was no difference in liking and familiarity among these three athletes, but there was a difference in perceived congruity with wine among these athletes: Michelle Wei is a good match with wine, Catriona Le May Doan is a moderate match, and Hope Solo is a bad match.

Main Experiment 2 Method

Participants. Seventy nine participants (23 male, 56 female), from Brock University and the local community, took part in a NEW Wine Evaluation Study. In return, participants either received course credit or \$5. Their mean age was 23.78 years (Min = 19, local legal drinking age; Max = 46; SD = 4.82). Participants signed up via an online registration system.

Design and Procedure. Experiment 2 employed a design and procedure similar to that of Experiment 1, with two exceptions. First, Experiment 2 used a different set of three athletes as sponsors of wine. Second, in addition to the random ordering of athletes during the tasting phase (e.g., see Appendix E for random order of wine sampling for Experiment 1), participants were randomly assigned to either the sponsor or product prime condition (see Appendix G). Prior to tasting the wine samples, participants were exposed to and read the priming statement for their respective experimental condition.

Main Experiment 2 Results

Data from 11 participants were removed because they either properly guessed the hypothesis or that all wine samples were identical; the following analyses are based on 68

participants. Similar to Experiment 1, the WTP variable was log transformed and analyses for $\log(\text{WTP})$ will be reported, unless mentioned otherwise.

Congruity Manipulation Check. The manipulation for perceived incongruity did not replicate the pilot study results. Although Michelle Wei was perceived as a significantly better match than both Catriona Le May Doan and Hope Solo ($M_{\text{Wei}} = 3.53$, $M_{\text{Le May Doan}} = 5.43$, $M_{\text{Solo}} = 5.72$; both $p < .001$), there was no significant difference in perceived congruity between Catriona Le May Doan and Hope Solo ($p > .49$). Although this will be addressed further in the Experiment 2 discussion, it could be that either the prime influenced participants' perceived fit between the athletes and wine, or another variable, such as a change in the external environment between the pilot study and the main experiment or participants' attributions for sponsorship affected their perceived athlete-wine fit.

Wine Presentation Order. A mixed model ANOVA with congruity level (low, moderate, high) as the within-subjects variable and wine presentation order (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6) as the between-subjects variable was conducted and found that there were no effects of presentation order on overall liking, WTB, or $\log(\text{WTP})$ (all $p > .43$). This variable will not be discussed further.

Sensory Evaluations. To examine H1a, that there will be an effect on participants' evaluations of sponsored products, a repeated measures ANOVA with congruity level (low, moderate, high) as the within-subjects variable was conducted. The analysis found that there was a significant main effect for both overall liking ($F(2,134) = 4.16$, $p < .02$, $\text{MSE} = 1.56$; see Figure 12) and WTB ($F(2,134) = 4.57$, $p < .02$, $\text{MSE} = 1.75$; see Figure 13). There was a difference in $\log(\text{WTP})$ ($F(2,122) = 2.49$, $p < .09$, $\text{MSE} = .01$; see Figure 14), but this difference failed to reach the .05 level.

To further investigate these main effects, paired-samples t -tests were run. Participants' overall liking rating for the moderately incongruent pairing ($M_{\text{Le May Doan}} = 3.37$) was significantly lower than their overall liking rating for the congruent pairing ($M_{\text{Wei}} = 3.99$; $t(67) = 2.89$, $p < .01$). However, there was no significant difference between the moderately incongruent pairing and the highly incongruent pairing ($M_{\text{Solo}} = 3.66$; $t(67) = 1.40$, $p > .16$), and between the congruent pairing and highly incongruent pairing ($t(67) = 1.48$, $p > .15$).

Participants' WTB rating for the moderately incongruent pairing ($M_{\text{Le May Doan}} = 2.56$) was significantly lower than their WTB rating for both the congruent pairing ($M_{\text{Wei}} = 3.22$; $t(67) = 3.07$, $p < .01$) and the highly incongruent pairing ($M_{\text{HK Solo}} = 3.04$; $t(67) = 2.27$, $p < .03$). There was no significant difference in participants' WTB rating for the congruent and highly incongruent pairing ($t(67) = .71$, $p > .47$). These results do not support H1a, because participants had *lower*, not *higher*, evaluations for the moderately incongruent product.

Insert Figures 12 – 14 about here

To examine H4a, that there will be an interaction effect between the product prime condition and the sponsor prime condition on participants' evaluations of sponsored products, a mixed model ANOVA with congruity level (low, moderate, high) as the within-subjects variable and prime condition (athlete, wine) as the between-subjects variable was conducted. The analysis found that there were no interactions for overall liking ($F(2, 132) = 45$, $p > .63$, $\text{MSE} = 1.57$; see Figure 15), WTB ($F(2, 132) = .53$, $p > .59$, $\text{MSE} = 1.76$; see Figure 16) and log(WTP) ($F(2, 120) = .12$, $p > .88$, $\text{MSE} = .01$; see Figure 17 for raw WTP data). These results do not support H4a, as there were no differences in overall liking, and willingness to buy and pay across congruity levels among participants in both the product prime condition and the sponsor prime condition.

Insert Figures 15 – 17 about here

Preferred Sample. To examine H1b and H4b, that there will be main and interaction effects on preferred choice (see Figure 18 and 19, respectively), chi-square tests were conducted. Overall, participants' selection based on incongruity revealed no significant differences ($\chi^2(2) = 2.68, p > .26$) in their selection for the congruent ($n = 28$), moderately incongruent ($n = 17$), and highly incongruent pairings ($n = 23$) as their most preferred sample. These results do not support H1b, as there was no main effect of perceived incongruity on participants' selection of their most preferred sample. Selection based on incongruity among participants in the wine prime condition revealed no significant differences ($\chi^2(2) = .41, p > .81$) in their selection for the congruent ($n = 10$), moderately incongruent ($n = 11$), and highly incongruent pairings ($n = 13$) as their most preferred sample.³ However, selection based on incongruity among participants in the athlete prime condition revealed a significant difference, as they were more likely to select the congruent pairing as their most preferred sample ($n = 18$) over the moderately incongruent pairing ($n = 6$) and the highly incongruent pairing ($n = 10$; $\chi^2(2) = 6.59, p < .04$) as their most preferred sample. These results do not support H4b, as participants in the sponsor prime condition were not more likely to select the moderately incongruent sponsor-product pairing as their most preferred sample.

Insert Figure 18 and 19 about here

Sponsorship Attributions. When participants were asked the reason why they thought Michelle Wei, Catriona Le May Doan, and Hope Solo entered into the partnership, participants responded with one of four reasons: the athlete liked the taste of the wine ($n = 20, 20, 21$,

³ We again examined participants' reasons for having selected their most preferred sample: nearly every participant chose their favourite wine because they claimed to have liked the taste the most.

respectively), the athlete wanted to advance their career or gain personal profit ($n = 34, 30, 36$, respectively), the athlete both liked the taste of the wine and wanted to advance their career ($n = 11, 12, 8$, respectively), or the participant did not know the reason ($n = 3, 6, 2$, respectively). In order to analyze participants' sponsorship attributions, their open-ended responses were dummy-coded. Chi-square analyses on participants' sponsorship attributions revealed that more participants thought that both Michelle Wei ($\chi^2(1) = 3.63, p < .06$) and Hope Solo ($\chi^2(1) = 3.95, p < .05$) became sponsors for personal profit, whereas there was an equal number of participants who thought that Catriona Le May Doan became a sponsor because of the taste of the wine and personal profit ($\chi^2(1) = 2.00, p > .15$).

Participants also guessed how much Michelle Wei, Catriona Le May Doan, and Hope Solo were paid for the sponsorship agreement ($M_{\text{Wei}} = \$680,576.09$; $M_{\text{Le May Doan}} = \$373,306.12$; $M_{\text{Solo}} = \$677,588.24$). Participants thought that Michelle Wei was paid significantly more than Catriona Le May Doan ($t(45) = 2.06, p < .05$) and that Hope Solo was paid significantly more than Catriona Le May Doan ($t(48) = 1.92, p < .07$), whereas participants did not think that there was a difference in how much Michelle Wei and Hope Solo were paid ($t(45) = .63, p > .52$).⁴

EXPERIMENT 2 DISCUSSION

There are a few possible reasons that could explain why the congruity manipulation check was not supported. First, the manipulation check was conducted under a different experimental condition than the female athlete pilot study. More specifically, participants in Experiment 2 were exposed to the priming statements, which influenced how unusual or

⁴ Responses from participants who listed a range (e.g., \$500,000-\$1,500,000), a proportion (e.g., 2% of overall sales, 1¢ per bottle sold), or an outlier (e.g., \$15 likely meant either \$15,000 or \$15,000,000) were not included in these analyses.

common participants perceived athletes to sponsor wine, and wine to be sponsored by athletes. Therefore, these primes could have influenced participants' perceived fit between Michelle Wei, Catriona Le May Doan, and Hope Solo, and wine.⁵

In addition, unpredictable and uncontrollable circumstances changed between the time when the female athlete pilot study was conducted and when Experiment 2 was carried out.⁶ Namely, Hope Solo became a contestant on *Dancing with the Stars*, a popular televised show. Therefore, the airing of this show during the data collection for Experiment 2 could have contributed to the fact that the manipulation check simply did not work. Hope Solo's mean incongruity ranking with wine decreased from 6.91 (in the pilot study) to 5.69 (in Experiment 2), a lower number indicating more congruent and less incongruent. The range in incongruity rankings also increased from the pilot study to Experiment 2. The fact that Hope Solo was a contestant on *Dancing with the Stars* during Experiment 2 could have contributed to participants perceiving Hope Solo as a better fit with wine than in the pilot study.

Last, a variable, other than perceived athlete-wine congruity, could have influenced participants' overall liking, and willingness to buy and pay for the three wine samples. That is, although participants perceived Michelle Wei as a better match with wine than both Catriona Le May Doan and Hope Solo, participants did not perceive a difference in fit with wine between these latter two athletes. Therefore, based on these perceptions of fit, participants should have

⁵ However, upon more detailed investigation, this reason is likely not the cause for the failed manipulation check. A one-way ANOVA was conducted with the prime condition as the independent variable and congruity rating for Michelle Wei, Catriona Le May Doan, and Hope Solo as the dependent variable. The analysis found that there were no effects of prime on congruity ratings (all $p > .23$). A repeated measures ANOVA was also conducted, with congruity level (low, moderate, high) as the within-subjects variable and prime condition (athlete, wine) as the between-subjects variable. The analysis found that there was no significant interaction effect between these two variables on the dependent variable, congruity ratings for Michelle Wei, Catriona Le May Doan, and Hope Solo ($p > .49$).

⁶ The pilot study was concluded by mid-August 2011, before the cast for *Dancing with the Stars* was announced at the end of August 2011 and before the show premiered on September 19, 2011. The first participant for Experiment 2 was run on September 12, 2011, and the last on September 30, 2011.

given the Michelle Wei sample the highest ratings for liking, and willingness to buy and pay. However, that was not the case, because, overall, there was no difference in the dependent variables between Michelle Wei and Hope Solo. It is possible that the Catriona Le May Doan sample received the lowest ratings because this sponsor was perceived as getting paid less than the other two sponsors. Participants may still have perceived Catriona Le May Doan to be a moderately incongruent match with wine (even though the manipulation check was not supported, possibly due to Hope Solo being on dancing With The Stars, or Catriona Le May Doan being perceived as paid the least for the sponsorship agreement), but did not give this sample the highest ratings because of their lower perceptions of sponsorship payment.

The goal of Experiment 2 was to investigate whether the moderate schema incongruity effect occurs depending on participants' threshold for schema activation and spread of schema activation, regardless of their level of product knowledge. The current experiment tested this by partnering wine with athletes of varying degrees of fit—a good fit, represented by Michelle Wei, a golfer; a moderate fit, represented by Catriona Le May Doan, a speed skater; and a bad fit, represented by Hope Solo, a soccer player. Participants tasted three identical wine samples, under the premise that they were different brands sponsored by these athletes, and evaluated the samples based on their overall liking, and willingness to buy and pay for the wine. Prior to tasting the wine samples, participants read a statement that was either focused on the types of products that athletes endorse (sponsor prime) or what wines may be named after (product prime). Contrary to expectations, the moderate schema incongruity effect was neither observed overall, nor among participants in the sponsor prime and product prime conditions. As such, unlike the results for Experiment 1, which showed a flat-line curve overall and an inverse U-

shaped curve for high knowledge participants, the results for Experiment 2 showed a U-shaped curve overall.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

This primary goal of this research was to determine whether participants' perceived product-extrinsic cue congruity would influence their taste perceptions of an experiential product. A secondary goal of this research was to determine whether participants would demonstrate the moderate schema incongruity effect based on either their level of product knowledge or their most active schema.

The results of Experiment 1 demonstrated that participants' perceived fit or lack of fit between a product and an extrinsic cue (e.g., wine and its athlete sponsor) influenced participants' rating of their overall liking for the product, and their willingness to buy and pay for the product. More specifically, the results showed that only high knowledge score participants demonstrated the moderate schema incongruity effect in their product evaluations, as their evaluations demonstrated an inverse U-shaped curve across congruity levels. Low knowledge score participants did not demonstrate the moderate schema incongruity effect, as their evaluations demonstrated a flat-line curve across congruity levels. These results suggest that high knowledge participants have a sufficiently extensive product schema and were able to perceive the subtle differences in congruity across the three product pairing samples. These results are also in line with extant theorizing on the moderate schema incongruity effect (Mandler 1982), which state that, when consumers perceive objects to be moderately incongruent, they perceive these objects as novel and resolve the incongruity. In order to resolve moderate incongruity,

consumers engage in cognitive elaboration, which increases their affective reactions toward the moderately incongruent objects, such as product descriptions (Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989; Peracchio and Tybout 1996) or product pairings. The strong, positive affective reactions that consumers experienced from resolving the moderate incongruity is misattributed to their feelings and evaluations for the object or product.

The results from Experiment 1 suggest that low knowledge consumers have a rudimentary product schema and were not able to perceive subtle differences in congruity across the three product pairing samples. These results are also consistent with theorizing on the moderate schema incongruity effect (Mandler 1982). When consumers perceive an object to be congruent, they do not perceive these objects to be novel and do not need to resolve any incongruity. As such, consumers do not engage in cognitive elaboration, as they do not perceive any one product pairing to be incongruent or novel. Therefore, consumers' affective reactions for congruent objects, such as product descriptions (Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989; Peracchio and Tybout 1996) or product pairings, are mild. When consumers' affective reactions are mild, their product evaluations are lower than when their affective reactions are aroused, as is when they perceive moderate incongruity.

The goal of Experiment 2 was to determine whether participants would demonstrate the moderate schema incongruity effect based on their threshold for schema activation and spread of schema activation, regardless of their level of product knowledge. Given that a triggering condition activates only the most active schema, a priming statement was developed to activate either participants' product or sponsor schema (wine and athlete schema, respectively), which would, in turn, make participants perceive the product-external cue pairing as either not surprising and congruent, or surprising and incongruent. The congruity manipulation check for

this experiment was not supported, likely because one of the athletes examined appeared on a weekly televised show during most of Experiment 2, but not during the female athlete pilot study. The results of Experiment 2 did not show an interaction effect between the prime conditions and perceived incongruity on participants' product evaluation.

An investigation into participants' attributions for the athletes' reasons for entering into the sponsorship agreement and participants' guesses for how much the athletes were paid for the sponsorship provided a strong explanation for the overall U-shaped curve. Unlike Experiment 1, participants in Experiment 2 rated the moderately incongruent sponsor as being paid significantly less than the other two sponsors. Given that participants perceived Catriona Le May Doan as being paid less than Michelle Wei and Hope Solo, it would be expected that Catriona Le May Doan would correspondingly have received the lowest ratings for liking, and willingness to buy and pay.

Theoretical Contributions

This study makes several important contributions to the consumer behaviour and cognitive psychology literatures. First, to the best of the author's knowledge, this research paper was the first to provide evidence that perceived incongruity between an extrinsic product cue and a focal product influences consumers' product evaluations. Extant literature that has investigated the moderate schema incongruity effect on taste evaluations has only manipulated incongruity between an intrinsic product cue and a focal product (Allen et al. 2008; Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989; Peracchio and Tybout 1996). Additionally, the current study is one of the very few that has

measured participants' product knowledge and provided participants with a sample of the product to consume (Peracchio and Tybout 1996).

To this end, the results of Experiment 1 extend current understanding of the moderate schema incongruity theory. Peracchio and Tybout (1996) found that only *low* knowledge participants demonstrate the moderate schema incongruity effect when a focal product and its *intrinsic* cue, such as its product description, are incongruent (e.g., a dessert product received the highest evaluations when it was described as a spicy cake than when it was described as a high calorie cake or a spicy dessert). Conversely, the results of Experiment 1 in this paper found that only *high* knowledge participants demonstrate the moderate schema incongruity effect when a focal product and its *extrinsic* cue, such as its sponsor, are incongruent (e.g., a wine partnered with an athlete). However, in Peracchio and Tybout's (1996) study, high knowledge consumers (women) were not influenced by congruity-based affect, but were rather influenced by inference-based affect. That is, women did not evaluate the dessert product based on other similar dessert products (congruity-based affect), because they were more concerned by the dessert's description of high calories and inferred that the product was fattening (inference-based affect). Considering that the moderate schema incongruity effect is subtle, and that Peracchio and Tybout (1996), in a pilot study, found that their female participants were more concerned about their weight and dieting than the male participants, it logically followed that schema congruity was "overpowered" by affect associated with the product description.

In additional, even though Peracchio and Tybout (1996) categorized men as being low knowledge with regards to dessert products, their male participants evaluated the products in the same manner as the high knowledge score participants in the current paper. That is, these two sets of participants evaluated the product in terms of other similar products. Peracchio and

Tybout (1996) concluded that their male participants, given that they do not have sufficient experience with dessert products and thus do not have affective associations with dessert products (e.g., no affective reactions toward “high calorie” desserts); therefore, men will automatically evaluate the dessert product compared to other comparable products. It is concluded in the current study that the high knowledge score participants had sufficient knowledge about wine products to notice the subtle differences in congruity among the three samples, and evaluated each sponsored wine sample based on other comparable products. In both Peracchio and Tybout’s (1996) study and the current study, those participants who evaluated the products based on other similar products, gave the moderately incongruent product the highest evaluation.

Second, the current study offers insight on some of the conflicting results within the moderate schema incongruity theory literature. Some studies have found that perceived incongruity in a co-brand and sponsor partnership result in negative product evaluations. However, not all studies investigating the influence of perceived incongruity in the context of co-branded or sponsored products, and causes or events did not necessarily control for partner familiarity and credibility (Rifon et al. 2004; Simonin and Ruth 1988). Therefore, in order to gain an accurate understanding of the influence of schema incongruity on consumers’ evaluations of experiential products and charity causes, researchers must control for potential moderating variables, such as sponsor liking and familiarity.

Managerial Implications

Taste perception is an important aspect of a food product's overall evaluation. Most participants readily assumed that the experiment was about sponsorship and wine tasting, based on their answers to the experiments' hypothesis testing questions. Very few participants acknowledged that either the fit between the sponsor and the product had any important role in their taste evaluations, or that they tasted three samples of the exact same wine. Therefore, given that this study observed differences in participants' liking, and willingness to buy and pay for the product across congruity levels, this paper demonstrates that a seemingly unimportant detail, such as the product-extrinsic cue congruity, has important implications for consumers' taste perceptions of a food product.

The results of the current study have implications not only for wineries, but also for numerous other producers and marketers of experiential products and services. Aside from controlling for consumers' familiarity and liking of a product's sponsor, the match between the product and sponsor is a highly diagnostic cue in (high knowledge score) consumers' evaluations. More specifically, Experiment 1 provided evidence that consumers have a stronger preference for, are more likely to buy, and are more inclined to pay a higher price for products that are sponsored by someone who is not a perfect fit. Therefore, marketers should take into careful consideration the fit between their product and its sponsor. In fact, it is important to a company's bottom-line to understand the effect of incongruity on their consumers' preferences and product evaluations. When consumers' consumption experiences are positively enhanced by perceived moderate incongruity, they are more satisfied with the product, and, in turn, are more likely to engage in positive word-of-mouth, recommend the product to others, and purchase the

product again (Newman and Werbel 1973; Swan and Oliver 1989). Conversely, if consumers are less satisfied by perceived congruity and high incongruity, not only are they less likely to repurchase the product in the future compared to satisfied customers (Newman and Werbel 1973) but they are also more likely engage in negative word-of-mouth (Richins 1983).

Although low knowledge score consumers' liking, and willingness to buy and pay are not enhanced by a moderate product-sponsor match, these product evaluations are enhanced among high knowledge consumers. Given that objective knowledge is positively correlated with usage experience (Raju, Lonial, and Mangold 1995) and product category involvement (Brucks 1985), it may not be consequential that low knowledge score consumers are not influenced by perceived moderate incongruity. As such, the fact that those consumers who use and are more involved with a product category also tend to be high knowledge score consumers whose taste perceptions are positively influenced by moderately incongruent sponsors is a boon for marketers—these consumers contribute a greater share to sales than low knowledge score consumers who use the product and are less involved in the product category.

Limitations and Future Research

This research demonstrated that, when pairing sponsors with an experiential product, consumers' perceived sponsor-product fit and sponsorship attributions influenced their consumption experience. Despite the important results, and numerous theoretical contributions and managerial implications, the current study, however, has limitations and, thus, could benefit from future research. Even after conducting two experiments, theoretical questions still remain. The congruity manipulation check for Experiment 2, which did not replicate the results from the

female athlete ranking pilot study, represents an important limitation. Future research should investigate the questions that Experiment 2 sought to answer. A pilot study to correctly assess perceived sponsor-product congruity should present participants with the sponsor and product priming statements, and then have participants rank sponsors by perceived congruity. This procedure should increase the probability that the congruity manipulation check in the main study will replicate the pilot study results.

Furthermore, there is an inherent assumption of sequence effects in H4a and H4b: either participants' sponsor schema is activated first and they are then presented with the focal product, or participants' product schema is activated first and they are then presented with the sponsor. Therefore, would participants demonstrate the moderate schema incongruity effect in their product evaluations based on whether their schema is primed before or after they are presented with the product? In other words, would participants demonstrate the moderate schema incongruity effect based on the primed schema-extrinsic cue sequence? Given this assumption, it is important to examine sequence effects on participants' product evaluations of congruent, moderately incongruent, and highly incongruent product pairings.

Extant literature on sequence effects have showed that information that is encountered within a sequence affects the way in which consumers remember the information and how they develop preferences for various options, including consumer's preferences for stockings (Wilson and Nisbett 1979) and wine samples (Mantonakis et al. 2009), as well as judges' evaluations in figure skating contests (Bruine de Bruin 2006) and individuals' choices for political candidates (Miller and Krosnick 1998). In general, when consumers are choosing their favourite option within a sequence, primacy effects are usually observed; recency effects usually only appear in longer sequence lengths and are more likely to be observed among more knowledgeable

consumers (Mantonakis et al. 2009). As such, studying whether sequence effects occur based on whether participants' schema is activated before or after they are presented with the product or sponsor is an important question to address to determine whether contrast effect are observed.

Another avenue to explore the influence of sequence effects would be to inform participants about the product's sponsor after consuming the product. Extant research suggests that, when consuming an experiential product, consumers automatically form affective reactions and evaluations, even before receiving any product information. As such, when consumers receive product information before sampling a product, they perceive the information as indistinct from the consumption experience and their product evaluation will be assimilated with the product information. On the other hand, when consumers receive product information after consuming a product, they perceive the information as distinct from the consumption experience and their product evaluation will be contrasted with the product information.

For example, when participants sampled a piece of chocolate, and were informed that the product's country of origin was Switzerland (positive information) and were provided with this information before sampling, participants assimilated this information into their consumption experience and gave positive product evaluations. Conversely, when participants were told that the chocolate's country of origin was China (negative information) and were provided with this information after sampling, participants contrasted this information against their consumption experience and gave positive product evaluations (Wilcox, Roggeveen, and Grewal 2012). Although these researchers categorized the country of origin as either positive or negative information, from another perspective, this information could also be perceived by consumers as either congruent or incongruent product information. As such, informing participants about the

product's sponsor after they consume the product is an important question to address to determine whether contrast effects are observed.

In addition, further research on corporate social responsibility and cause brand alliance should be conducted. Although there is a sufficient body of research on this topic that has concluded that when the brand and cause fit, attitudes towards both the brand and cause are enhanced (Lafferty, Goldstein, and Hult 2004), these studies have not investigated all degrees of perceived congruity (i.e., only investigated congruity and high incongruity, but not moderate incongruity). Therefore, more research, with the whole spectrum of congruity, should be conducted to understand the most optimal type of partnership between a corporate brand and charity and community organizations. This type of future research would have important implications for sports marketing (i.e., the use of sporting events, sporting teams, and individual athletes to promote cause sponsorship). For example, the results of the current study, as well as the literature on moderate schema incongruity in general, suggest that causes could enhance not only their stream of financial donations to their cause, but could also potentially increase their number of volunteer workers by partnering with a company that is a moderate fit with their cause. However, future research should investigate whether the moderate schema incongruity effect is also observed when a brand and cause are partnered together. For example, by partnering with a moderately incongruent company, would the Canadian Blood Services be able to increase their number of blood units donations? Also, does the type of cause and the perceived immediacy of need represented by the cause moderate the effect of incongruity between a brand and its partnered cause? For example, after a natural disaster, when consumers perceive a great immediate need for support, will consumers give more positive evaluations and be more apt to donate to a congruent brand-cause partnership (e.g., Wyclef Jean, a Haiti-born singer, supporting

Haiti hurricane relief efforts) than a moderately incongruent or highly incongruent cause-brand partnership (e.g., Angelina Jolie, an American born actress who is highly known for her humanitarian work, and Robert “Kid Rock” Ritchie, an American born singer who does very little charity work, respectively)?

Future research should explore the effect of in-group and out-group ethnic membership on consumers’ evaluations of sponsored products. Considering the athlete sponsors in Experiment 1, Jeremy Wotherspoon was the only Caucasian athlete (Vijay Singh is Fijian, and Dwayne “The Rock” Johnson is part Samoan and Polynesian). Given that participants were largely Caucasian, higher evaluations for the moderately incongruent pairing (Jeremy Wotherspoon) could be explained by the in-group preference hypothesis, which states that individuals have a strong desire for other individuals of their own race (Clark 1992). In order to control for potential in-group preferences, research studies in the future may want to use sponsors of only one ethnic background. Another method to control for potential in-group preferences, researchers may also want to avoid sponsors altogether, and instead use objects, either animate or inanimate (e.g., 20 Bees or 13th Street wine labels).

Also, in this same vein, the congruity between the country of origin of the wine (participants likely thought that the wine was made in the Niagara region, Canada because this is where the study took place) and the country of origin of the sponsor may have influenced participants’ evaluations of the athlete-sponsored wines. For example, when participants evaluated wines, they perceived the wine produced in France by a French winemaker as being more authentic than a wine produced in Australia by a French winemaker. As such, the degree of congruity between these two sources of origin influences consumers’ perception of the product (Spielmann and Babin 2011). Therefore, in the current study, the degree of congruity between

the origin of the wine samples and the origin of the athlete sponsors may have influenced participants' evaluations of the sponsored products. Research in the future should investigate whether the fit between the country of origin of the product and the country of origin of the sponsor influences evaluations for a sponsored product.

The results of Experiment 2 suggest that consumers' product evaluations are not only influenced by their perceived product-sponsor fit, but are also influenced by their assumptions about how much the sponsor was paid and the reason for the sponsor to have entered into the partnership. These results were simply an interesting occurrence, and the goal of Experiment 2 was not to directly examine the effect of sponsorship attributions on consumers' product evaluations. Future research could investigate the interaction between perceived product-sponsor congruity and sponsorship attributions on consumers' liking, and willingness to buy and pay for a product.

Another possible direction for future research is to generalize the results of Experiment 1 and Experiment 2 to beyond using wine as a focal product and athletes as sponsors. Consumers' evaluation of experiential products, such as wine, are primarily affective and result from automatic reactions and bottom-up processing (Biswas et al. 2010; Nowlis and Shiv 2005). Therefore, using other experiential products to research the influence of product-external cue incongruity on consumers' evaluations, rather than utilitarian products, will be more promising; such experiential products include chocolate, perfume, music, and movies. In fact, extending the current research results beyond food and beverage product, to explore the impact of perceived incongruity on other senses will likely result in fruitful future research.

In addition, using partners, other than athletes, will prove to have important managerial implications. For example, other celebrity figures that have a narrow brand character are

musicians (e.g., Gwen Stefani may be perceived as active and energetic because of her up-beat pop music), actors who are well-known for playing specific types of characters (e.g., Hugh Jackman may be perceived as rugged and adventurous because of his portrayal of Wolverine in multiple X-Men movies), and media personalities (e.g., Martha Stewart may be perceived as wholesome because of her recipes and crafts portrayed in the Martha Stewart Living magazine and show). Future research could generalize the results of the current experiments by using co-brands (e.g., Hallmark, Herbal Essences, Lululemon Athletica) to partner with a focal product.

Last, similar to many studies conducted at a post-secondary institute, the participants in the pilot studies and Experiments 1 and 2 were mostly university students. Although using a homogeneous sample is acceptable when testing theory (Sternthal, Tybout, and Calder 1994), this practice limits the generalizability of the experiments' results. Therefore, replicating the studies in this paper using a more representative sample of the general population could be beneficial. The current experiments were also conducted in a laboratory setting using hypothetical product-sponsor partnerships. Although this setting enabled us to precisely test the experiments' hypotheses and that the vast majority of participants accepted the experiments' hypothetical partnerships as real, a laboratory setting is considered artificial. As such, conducting a field experiment where conditions are more realistic, and using actual product-sponsor pairings (e.g., Wayne Gretzky, Larry Bird, Mike Weir) may offer greater implications for marketers.

CONCLUSION

The current findings extend the understanding of the role of perceived product-association incongruity on consumers' product evaluations. Previous research demonstrates that

moderate incongruity between a product and one of its intrinsic cues, such as the product's description, enhances low knowledge participants' sensory evaluations. Across two studies, this thesis demonstrated that moderate incongruity between a product and one of its extrinsic cues, such as the product's sponsor or co-brand, enhances high knowledge participants' sensory evaluations. The findings also suggest that factors other than perceived incongruity may play a role in influencing consumers' sensory evaluations. More specifically, when evaluating a sponsored or co-branded product, consumers' most active schema, either their sponsor or product schema, and the associations within these schemas may influence their sensory evaluations, regardless of their level of product knowledge. In addition, the monetary amount that consumers think a product's sponsor was paid may influence consumers' sensory evaluations. Future research is required to more accurately measure the effects of potential moderators, including sponsorship attributions and sequence effects. Understanding the role of perceived moderate incongruity on sensory evaluations will enable marketers to enhance consumers' product evaluations and purchase behaviour toward their brands.

APPENDIX A

Summary of Competing Theories

Co-Branding and Sponsorship	
The Persuasion Knowledge Model suggests that consumers will discount and ignore a product's extrinsic cue during their product evaluation due to the their accumulated knowledge about and experience with a persuasion agent's tactics	Despite scepticism toward advertising, consumers still believe that advertising provides valuable information (Calfee and Ringold 1994). Consumers' product evaluations are influenced by product-sponsor fit (Lee and Thorson 2008) and product description-product category fit store scent-product category fit (Peracchio and Tybout 1996).
Taste Perception	
High knowledge consumers rely more on intrinsic product cues (e.g., ingredients, colour, texture) when assessing product quality, whereas low knowledge consumers rely more on extrinsic cues (e.g., price, brand name, sponsor or co-brand; Chaiken and Trope 1999; Rao and Monroe 1988). Therefore, low knowledge consumers are more likely to be influenced by the perceived product-extrinsic cue incongruity.	Low knowledge consumers' schema structure may be too rudimentary to even perceived product-extrinsic cue incongruity. Conversely, high knowledge consumers' schema structure is sufficiently extensive to perceive even slight (moderate) incongruity (Fiske and Taylor 1991). Therefore, high knowledge consumers are more likely to be influenced by the perceived product-extrinsic cue incongruity.

APPENDIX B

Summary of Pilot Studies and Main Experiments

Description	Results
Piloting Athletes	
<p>Athlete pilot #1: 24 athletes total, 12 each male and female mixed together; tested liking, familiarity, and congruity.</p>	<p>There was no significant difference in liking and familiarity among Pete Sampras (tennis), Mia Hamm (soccer), and Cassie Campbell (hockey), and there was a significant difference in fit with wine. These athletes weren't used because of their mixed genders.</p>
<p>Athlete pilot #2: 12 female athletes (only) from pilot #1 were used; tested liking, familiarity, and congruity.</p>	<p>No set of three female athletes was found: there was a significant difference for liking and familiarity, or no significant difference for congruity on at least one comparison between athlete X, Y, and Z.</p>
<p>Athlete pilot #3: 12 male athletes (only) from pilot #1 were used; tested liking, familiarity, and congruity.</p>	<p>No set of three male athletes was found: there was a significant difference for liking and familiarity, or no significant difference for congruity on at least one comparison.</p>
<p>Athlete pilot #4: 24 athletes from pilot #1 were used, but male and female athletes were ranked separately; tested liking, familiarity, and congruity and added wine association and congruity ranking rationale open-ended questions.</p>	<p>No set of three male or female athletes was found: there was a significant difference for liking and familiarity, or no significant difference for congruity on at least one comparison.</p>
<p>Athlete pilot #5: New set of athletes used, 9 male and female athletes were ranked separately; tested liking, familiarity, congruity and open-ended questions.</p>	<p>No set of three male or female athletes was found: there was a significant difference for liking and familiarity, or no significant difference for congruity on at least one comparison.</p>

<p>Athlete pilot #6: New set of athletes used, 10 male and 7 female athletes were ranked separately; tested liking, familiarity, congruity and open-ended questions.</p>	<p>There was no significant difference in liking and familiarity among Vijay Singh (golf), Jeremy Wotherspoon (speed skating), and Dwayne “The Rock” Johnson (wrestling), and there was a significant difference in fit with wine. These athletes were used for Experiment 1. No set with female athletes was found (i.e., there was a significant difference for liking and familiarity, or no significant difference for congruity on at least one comparison between athlete X, Y, and Z).</p>
Experiment 1	
<p>Paired Singh, Wotherspoon, and The Rock with wine samples; tested differences in liking, willingness to buy and pay across sponsors; measured wine knowledge.</p>	<p>Significant differences in liking, willingness to buy and pay across congruity levels only for high knowledge, and not low knowledge participants (high knowledge participants gave higher ratings for all three DVs for the moderately incongruent sponsor-product pairing). No significant differences in DVs across congruity levels by wine knowledge.</p>
Co-Brands Piloting	
<p>Co-brand pilot #1: 12 co-brands with wine (tested liking, familiarity, congruity, open-ended questions) and 12 local wineries (tested liking and familiarity).</p>	<p>No set of three co-brands was found (i.e., there was a significant difference for liking and familiarity, or no significant difference for congruity on at least one between X, Y, and Z). A set of wineries was found.</p>
<p>Co-brand pilot #2: New list of 9 12 co-brands with wine (tested liking, familiarity, congruity, open-ended questions) and 12 local wineries (tested liking and familiarity).</p>	<p>There was no significant difference in liking and familiarity among Hallmark, Herbal Essences, Lululemon; Herbal Essences, Lululemon, Second Cup; Herbal Essences, Lululemon. Triscuit; and Office Depot, Tide To Go, Triscuit, and there was a significant difference in their match with wine.</p>
Piloting Regions	
<p>Region pilot #1: 12 provinces/states; tested liking, familiarity, congruity and open-ended questions.</p>	<p>Every region that received no significant difference in liking and familiarity ranking, also received no significant difference in fit with wine ranking.</p>

Region pilot #2: 9 provinces/states; tested liking, familiarity, congruity and open-ended questions.	BC/California/NY was a borderline set (one comparison for congruity was just above .05). Otherwise, every region that received no significant difference in liking and familiarity, also received no significant difference in fit with wine ranking.
Perceptual and Conceptual Primes	
Perceptual and conceptual pilot #1: Tested differences in importance of perceptual (aroma, sweetness) and conceptual (price, brand name) factors when purchasing wine; eight questions were asked to measure the differences in importance of perceptual vs. conceptual factors.	Only 4/8 perceptual/conceptual measures were significantly different between the two priming groups. There weren't enough significant differences between the perceptual and conceptual primes; the priming statements did not sufficiently isolate the different (perceptual vs. conceptual) evaluation strategies.
Perceptual and conceptual pilot #2: Adjusted pilot study #1 to include more perceptual and conceptual words in their respective primes to strengthen the lack of significance from pilot study #1.	Only 3/8 perceptual/conceptual measures were significantly different between the two priming groups. Again, there weren't enough significant differences between the perceptual and conceptual primes.
Perceptual and conceptual pilot #3: Adjusted scenario for perceptual prime to be about a wine tasting party at one's house vs. conceptual prime about dinner party at boss' house (same from pilot #1 and #2).	Only 2/8 perceptual/conceptual measures were significantly different between the two priming groups. Again, there weren't enough significant differences between the perceptual and conceptual primes.
Various Products and Sponsors	
Sponsor and product pairing pilot: Paired various sponsors (when you think of the sponsor, you don't typically think of the product) and products (when you think of the product, you typically think of the sponsor) together to determine which sponsor-product pairing will be used in Experiment 2 (wine may or may not be used in the next main study); paired designers/celebrities with perfume, celebrities with yogurt, musicians with wine and clothing, movie/TV characters and athletes with cereal; tested liking, familiarity, congruity and open-ended questions.	Celine Dion, Mariah Carey, and The Rolling Stones liking and familiarity ranking were close to the .05 level. There was no significant difference in liking and familiarity among Barbara Streisand, Dave Matthews, and KISS, and there was a significant difference in fit with wine. There was no significant difference in liking and familiarity among Michael Jordan (basketball), Andre Agassi (tennis), and Muhammed Ali (boxing), and there was a significant difference in fit with cereal.

Products and Sponsors Prime	
<p>Prime pilot #1: Athlete, cereal, musician, and wine prime; tested difference in perceived likelihood of athletes sponsoring cereal vs. cereal being sponsored by athletes, and musicians sponsoring wine vs. wine being sponsored by musicians; quantitative and qualitative (open-ended) questions to test these perceived differences.</p>	<p>No significant difference in perceived likelihood of athletes sponsoring cereal vs. cereal being sponsored by athletes, and musicians sponsoring wine vs. wine being sponsored by musicians (quantitative questions). Most participants in the wine prime condition freely recalled athletes sponsoring wine.</p>
<p>Prime pilot #2: Used same athlete and wine prime as pilot #1 but exchanged “cereal” for “wine” in athlete prime and “musician” for “athlete” in wine prime; quantitative and qualitative questions.</p>	<p>No significant difference in perceived likelihood of athletes sponsoring wine vs. wine being sponsored by athletes. However, there was a long list of products in the athlete prime, and a short list of brand names in the wine prime.</p>
<p>Prime pilot #3: Used same athlete and wine prime as pilot #2; listed only 5 typical products that athletes sponsor and 5 typical names that wines are named after; quantitative and qualitative questions.</p>	<p>Significant difference in perceived likelihood of athletes sponsoring wine (less likely) vs. wine being sponsored by athletes (more likely). The athlete prime made participants think that athletes almost never sponsor wine. The wine prime made participants think that wine is always almost always sponsored by wine. These priming statements will be used for Experiment 2.</p>
Female Athletes for Experiment 2	
<p>New list of 10 female athletes; test liking, familiarity, congruity and ranking rationale.</p>	<p>There was no significant difference in liking and familiarity among Michelle Wei (golf), Catriona Le May Down (speed skating), and Hope Solo (soccer), and there was a significant difference in fit with wine. These athletes were used for Experiment 2. No other set of athletes was found.</p>
Experiment 2	
<p>Paired Michelle Wei, Catriona Le May Doan, and Hope Solo with wine samples; tested differences in liking, willingness to buy and pay across sponsors; measured wine knowledge; participants read either the sponsor prime or product prime.</p>	<p>No significant differences in DVs across congruity levels by prime condition and wine knowledge.</p>

APPENDIX C

List of Male and Female Athletes

Male Athletes	Sport
Andre Agassi	Tennis
Tony Hawk	Skateboarding
Michael Phelps	Swimming
Kobe Bryant	Basketball
Vijay Singh	Golf
Derek Jeter	Baseball
Dominik Hašek	Hockey
Dwayne “The Rock” Johnson	Wrestling
Brett Favre	Football
Jeremy Wotherspoon	Speed skating
Female Athletes	Sport
Catriona Le May Doan	Speed skating
Annika Sorenstam	Golf
Danica Patrick	Race car driving
Mia Hamm	Soccer
Hayley Wickenheiser	Hockey
Lindsay Davenport	Tennis
Michelle Kwan	Figure skating

APPENDIX D**Athlete Ranking Pilot Survey****Athlete Familiarity Ranking**

We are interested in how much you are relatively familiar with various athletes. Imagine you are talking with a friend about sports, and your friend mentions a particular athlete. If you can carry on the conversation, then you are familiar with the athlete. However, if you must question your friend about the sport in which they compete, then you would not be familiar with the athlete. Below is a list of 10 male athletes, in alphabetical order. Rank the athletes from 1 THROUGH 10 (do NOT give multiple athletes the same ranking) based on how familiar you are with them. Therefore, write "1" next to the athlete with whom you are the most familiar, and write "10" next to the athlete with whom you are the least familiar:

Andre Agassi (tennis)	_____
Brett Favre (football)	_____
Derek Jeter (baseball)	_____
Dominik Hašek (hockey)	_____
Dwayne "The Rock" Johnson (wrestling)	_____
Jeremy Wotherspoon (speed skating)	_____
Kobe Bryant (basketball)	_____
Michael Phelps (swimming)	_____
Tony Hawk (skateboarding)	_____
Vijay Singh (golf)	_____

Athlete Liking Ranking

We are interested in how much you relatively like various athletes. Imagine you are at a sports tournament and are watching various athletes competing against each other. If you would like one athlete to win against another, then you would like the first athlete relatively more than the second athlete. Below is a list of 10 male athletes, in alphabetical order. Rank the athletes from 1 THROUGH 10(do NOT give multiple athletes the same ranking) based on how much you like them. Therefore, write "1" next to the athlete whom you like the most, and write "10" next to the athlete whom you like the least:

Andre Agassi (tennis)	_____
Brett Favre (football)	_____
Derek Jeter (baseball)	_____
Dominik Hašek (hockey)	_____
Dwayne "The Rock" Johnson (wrestling)	_____
Jeremy Wotherspoon (speed skating)	_____
Kobe Bryant (basketball)	_____
Michael Phelps (swimming)	_____
Tony Hawk (skateboarding)	_____
Vijay Singh (golf)	_____

Word Association

When you think of wine, what are the first thoughts and characteristics that come to your mind?
In the space below, write up to 10 words that you associate with wine:

Partnership Ranking

Take the Martha Stewart brand for an example: There are many products under her brand name, for example, The Martha Stewart Show, Martha Stewart magazine, and Martha Stewart Stationary greeting cards. To add to her brand portfolio is Martha Stewart Vintage wines.

We are interested in how much you think athletes would be a “good”, “medium”, or “bad” match with wine. Imagine that you saw a TV announcement about an athlete becoming a partner with a winery, and their name would now be on the wine label and associated with the winery. If you think that the partnership make sense, then it is a good match. If you think that the partnership somewhat makes sense, then it is a medium match. If you think that the partnership does not make any sense, then it is a bad match. Below is a list of 10 male athletes, in alphabetical order. Rank the athletes from 1 THROUGH 10 (do NOT give multiple athletes the same ranking) based on how well you think the athlete matches with a winery partnership. Write “1” next to the athlete whom you think is the best match with a winery, and write “10” next to the athlete whom think is the worst match with a winery:

Andre Agassi (tennis)	_____
Brett Favre (football)	_____
Derek Jeter (baseball)	_____
Dominik Hašek (hockey)	_____
Dwayne “The Rock” Johnson (wrestling)	_____
Jeremy Wotherspoon (speed skating)	_____
Kobe Bryant (basketball)	_____
Michael Phelps (swimming)	_____
Tony Hawk (skateboarding)	_____
Vijay Singh (golf)	_____

Now that you have ranked athletes based on how well you think they match with wine, please explain why you ranked the athletes in relation to wine the way you did:

APPENDIX E

Order of Wine Sampling for Experiment 1

	Order 1	Order 2	Order 3	Order 4	Order 5	Order 6
Presentation Order	1. Vijay Singh (golf)	1. Vijay Singh (golf)	1. Jeremy Wotherspoon	1. Jeremy Wotherspoon	1. Dwayne "The Rock"	1. Dwayne "The Rock"
	2. Jeremy Wotherspoon (speed skating)	2. Dwayne "The Rock" Johnson (wrestling)	(speed skating) 2. Vijay Singh (golf)	(speed skating) 2. Dwayne "The Rock"	Johnson (wrestling) 2. Vijay Singh (golf)	Johnson (wrestling) 2. Jeremy Wotherspoon
	3. Dwayne "The Rock" Johnson (wrestling)	3. Jeremy Wotherspoon (speed skating)	3. Dwayne "The Rock" Johnson (wrestling)	Johnson (wrestling) 3. Vijay Singh (golf)	3. Jeremy Wotherspoon (speed skating)	(speed skating) 3. Vijay Singh (golf)

APPENDIX F

Wine Knowledge Scale

(Hughson and Boakes 2001)

Correct answers are underlined

1. Indicate the traditional colour of the following varieties of wine:

Chardonnay	<u>White</u>	Red
Shiraz	White	<u>Red</u>
Merlot	White	<u>Red</u>
Chambourcin	White	<u>Red</u>
Riesling	<u>White</u>	Red
Semillon	<u>White</u>	Red
Gewürztraminer	<u>White</u>	Red
Grenache	White	<u>Red</u>

2. How do botrytis wines differ from standard wines?

- a) Sugar is added to standard still wine to increase sweetness.
- b) Grapes are infected by a fungus called botrytis.
- c) Grapes of the variety botrytis are used.
- d) Botrytis fermentation techniques are used.
- e) None of the above.

3. What is the main grape variety used in "Grange"?

- a) Semillon
- b) Chardonnay
- c) Cabernet
- d) Shim
- e) Pinot noir

4. What type of oak is Grange primarily matured in?

- a) American
- b) French
- c) Spanish
- d) Australian
- e) English

5. What is the distinction between aroma and bouquet?
- a) Bouquet is produced by red grapes and aroma by white grapes.
 - b) Bouquet occurs only in sparkling wines and aroma occurs
 - c) Aroma is based on climate, bouquet on soils.
 - d) Bouquet comes from fermentation procedures whereas aroma has origins in the grape alone.
 - e) Bouquet fades with bode age whereas aroma does not only in still wines.
6. What style is typical Hunter Valley semillon?
- a) Dry and unwooded
 - b) Sweet and unwooded
 - c) Sweet and heavily oaked
 - d) Dry and heavily oaked
 - e) Dry and sweet
7. What grapes is traditional champagne made with?
- a) Riesling and chardonnay
 - b) Shim and cabernet
 - c) Chardonnay and pinot noir
 - d) Grenache and semillon
 - e) Sauvignon blanc
8. What colour is the flesh of a pinot noir grape?
- a) Red
 - b) White
 - c) Pink
 - d) Purple
 - e) Yellow
9. How often do you drink wine?
- a) Every day
 - b) At least once a week
 - c) Once or more a month
 - d) Less than once per month
10. How much have you read about wine?
- a) 3 or more books or articles
 - b) 1-3 books or articles
 - c) Less than 1 book
 - d) Only labels

APPENDIX G

Athlete and Wine Prime Conditions

Athlete Prime

Athletes sponsor products to support themselves, especially if they compete in sports that don't pay big salaries or large awards so they can pay for training, food, housing and other essential needs. Athletes are very popular sponsors who are easily recognized by consumers, and are known for endorsing a wide range of products, including but not limited to sports equipment, athletic gear, financial services, wine, and luxury wristwatches.

1. What four product categories do you think athletes are most likely to sponsor? Please separate each with a comma (if you can't think of four, please list as many as you can).
2. How common do you think it is for athletes to enter sponsorship agreements for each of the following products:

	Almost Never	-	-	-	-	-	Almost Always
Sports equipment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Athletic gear	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Financial services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wine	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Luxury wristwatches	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

3. What other thoughts do you have about athletes sponsoring products?

Wine Prime

Wineries name their wine brand or attach it with a sponsor or celebrity name so that their product is easy to remember. Wines are almost always a word in a foreign language, named after the founding family's surname or celebrity or athlete who owns the winery. Sometimes, a wine is named after a special location or may have a funny or creative name to stand out among other wine brand names.

1. When wine is sponsored by individuals, what four types of people are they most likely to be sponsored by? Please separate each with a comma (if you can't think of four, please list as many as you can).
2. How common do you think it is for wine to be named after each of the following figures:

	Almost Never	-	-	-	-	-	Almost Always
Family surname	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Athlete	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Special location	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Word in a foreign language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Unusual name	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

3. What other thoughts do you have about wine being sponsored?

APPENDIX H

Female Athlete Ranking Pilot Survey

We are interested in understanding how much you like and how familiar you are with various athletes, and how well of a match you think they will be if they established a partnership with a winery.

Athlete Familiarity Ranking

We are interested in how much you are relatively FAMILIAR with various athletes. Imagine you are talking with a friend about sports, and your friend mentions a particular athlete. If you can carry on the conversation, then you are FAMILIAR with the athlete. However, if you must question your friend about the sport in which they compete, then you would NOT be FAMILIAR with the athlete. Take into consideration ALL of the following athletes at the same time. Rank all the athletes in the order of your FAMILIARITY: place the athlete with whom you are the MOST FAMILIAR at the TOP of the screen, and place the athlete with whom you are the LEAST FAMILIAR at the BOTTOM of the screen.

Annika Sorenstam (golf)

Catriona Le May Doan (speed skating)

Danica Patrick (race car driving)

Hayley Wickenheiser (hockey)

Maria Sharapova (tennis)

Abby Wambach (soccer)

Trish Stratus (wrestling)

Michelle Wei (golf)

Hope Solo (soccer)

Michelle Kwan (figure skating)

Athlete Liking Ranking

We are interested in how much you relatively LIKE various athletes. Imagine you are at a sports tournament and are watching various athletes competing against each other. If you would LIKE one athlete to win against another, then you would LIKE the first athlete relatively more than the second athlete. Take into consideration ALL of the following athletes at the same time. Rank all the athlete in the order of your LIKING: place the athlete whom you LIKE the MOST at the TOP of the screen, and place the athlete whom you LIKE the LEAST at the BOTTOM of the screen.

Annika Sorenstam (golf)

Catriona Le May Doan (speed skating)

Danica Patrick (race car driving)

Hayley Wickenheiser (hockey)

Maria Sharapova (tennis)

Abby Wambach (soccer)

Trish Stratus (wrestler)

Michelle Wei (golf)

Hope Solo (soccer)

Michelle Kwan (figure skating)

Partnership Ranking

Take the Martha Stewart brand for an example: There are many products under her brand name, for example, The Martha Stewart Show, Martha Stewart magazine and now Martha Stewart Wines.

We are interested in how well you think certain athletes would MATCH with a winery in a partnership. Imagine that you saw a news announcement about an athlete who entered into a partnership with a winery and their name would be on the wine label. If you think that the partnership makes sense, then the partnership is a GOOD MATCH. If you think that the partnership does not make sense, then the partnership is a BAD MATCH. Take into consideration ALL of the following athletes at the same time. Rank all the athletes in the order of your perceived MATCH: place the athlete who think would be the BEST MATCH at the TOP of the screen, and place the athlete who you think would be the WORST MATCH at the BOTTOM of the screen.

Annika Sorenstam (golf)

Catriona Le May Doan (speed skating)

Danica Patrick (race car driving)

Hayley Wickenheiser (hockey)

Maria Sharapova (tennis)

Abby Wambach (soccer)

Trish Stratus (wrestler)

Michelle Wei (golf)

Hope Solo (soccer)

Michelle Kwan (figure skating)

Now that you have ranked the athletes based on how well they match with wine, please explain why you ranked the athletes in relation to wine the way you did.

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TABLES AND FIGURES

Figure 1

Schematic Representation of Associations/Nodes within a Semantic Network

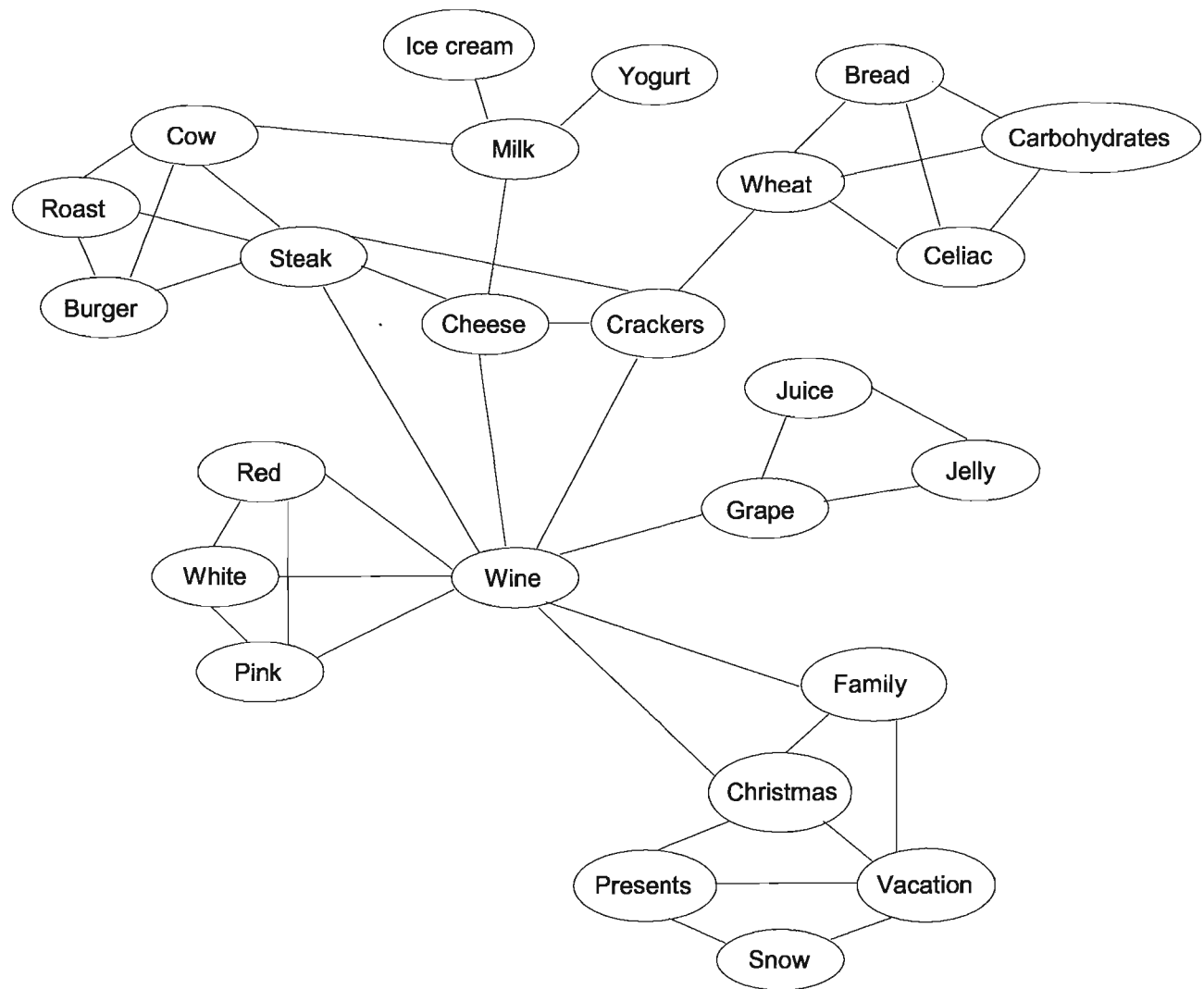


Figure 2

Few Associations/Nodes

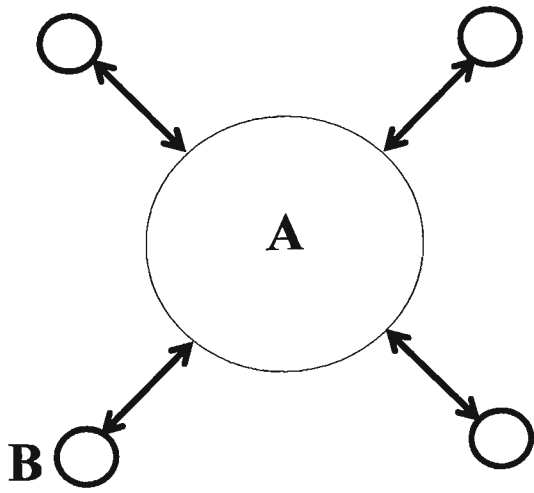


Figure 3

Many Associations/Nodes

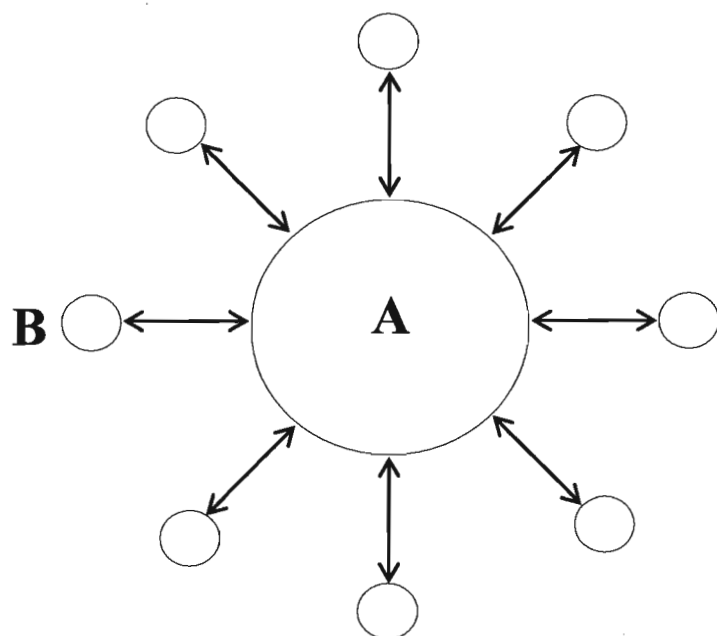


Figure 4

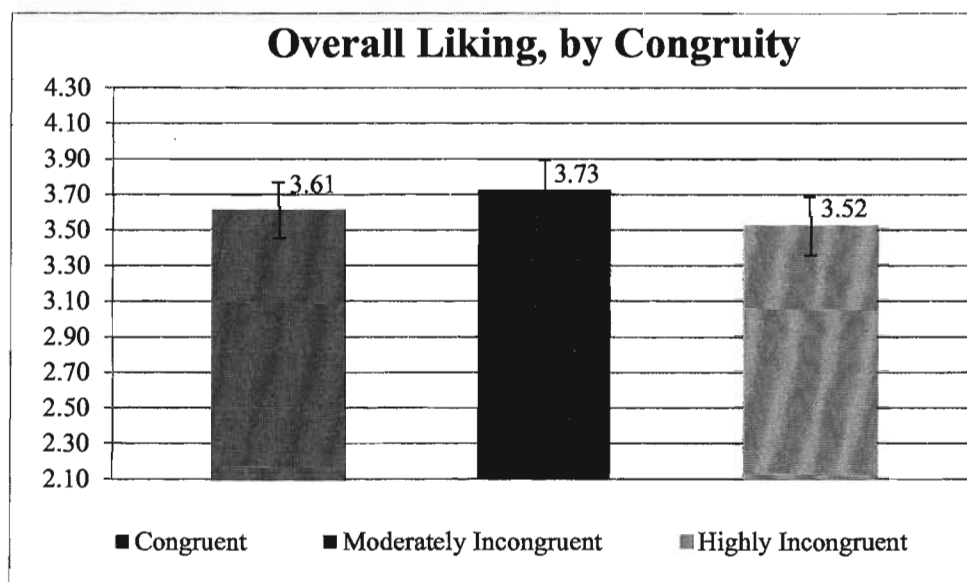


Figure 5

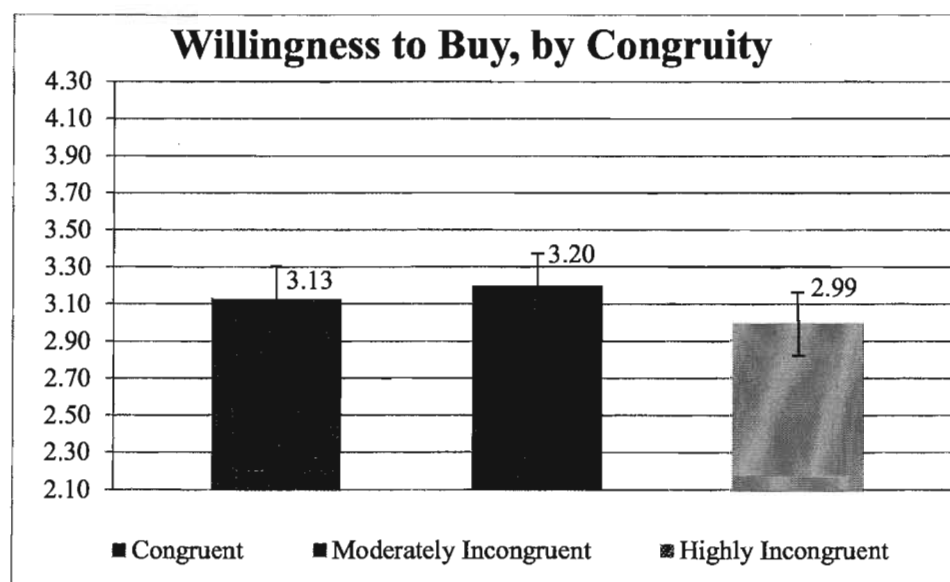


Figure 6

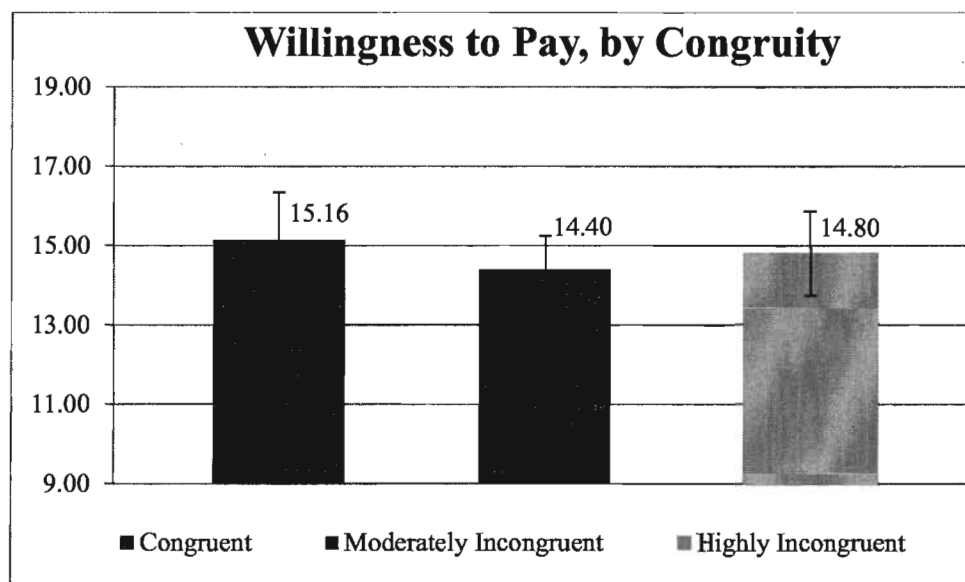


Figure 7

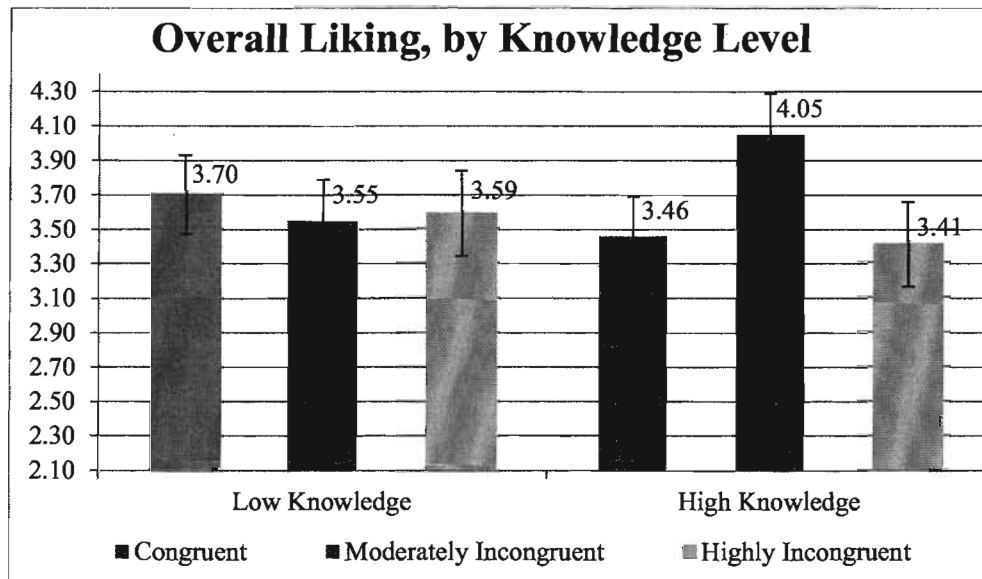


Figure 8

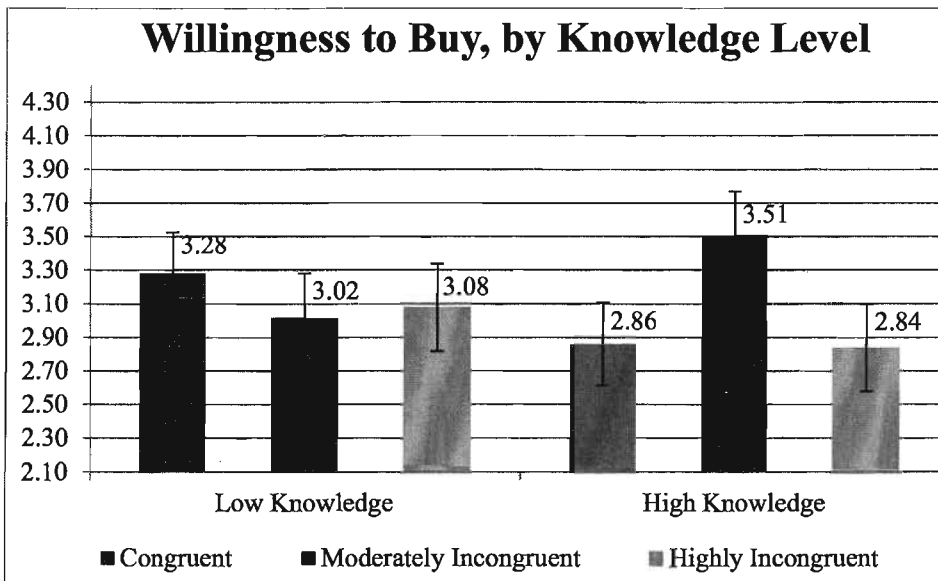


Figure 9

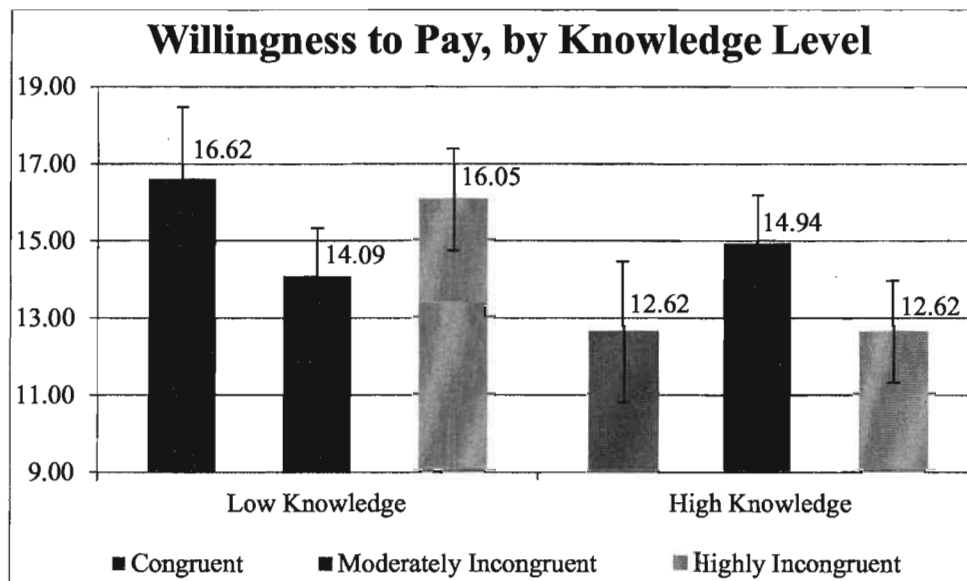


Figure 10

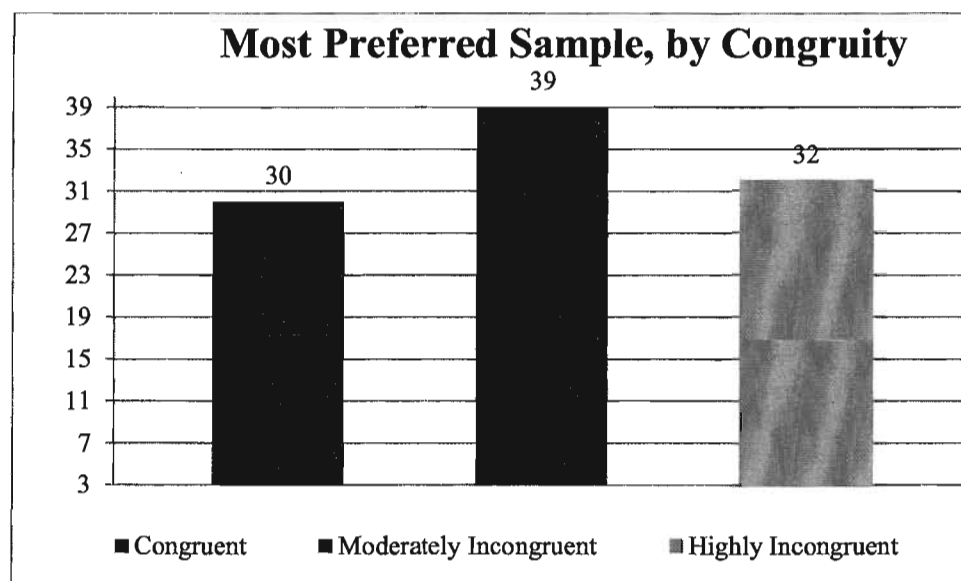


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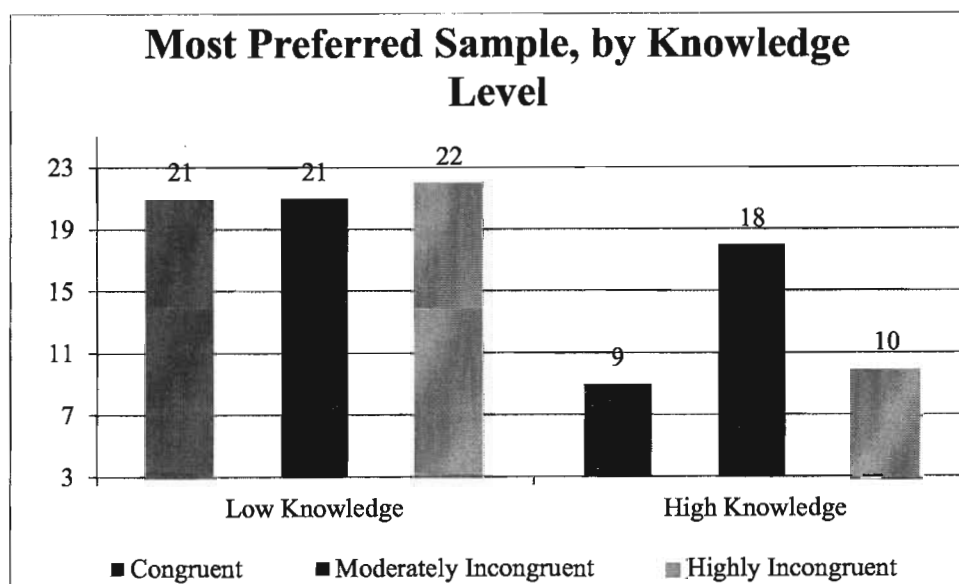


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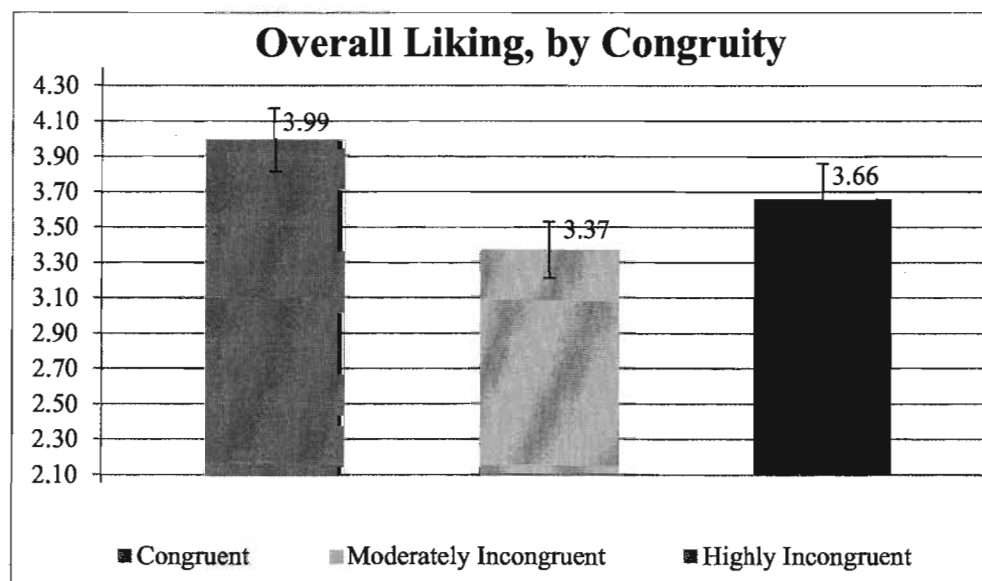


Figure 13

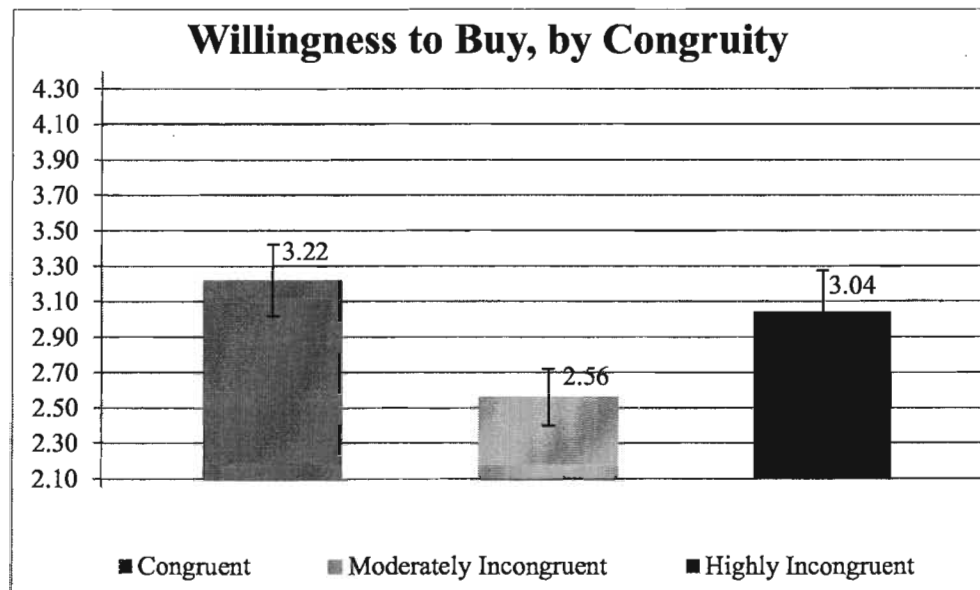


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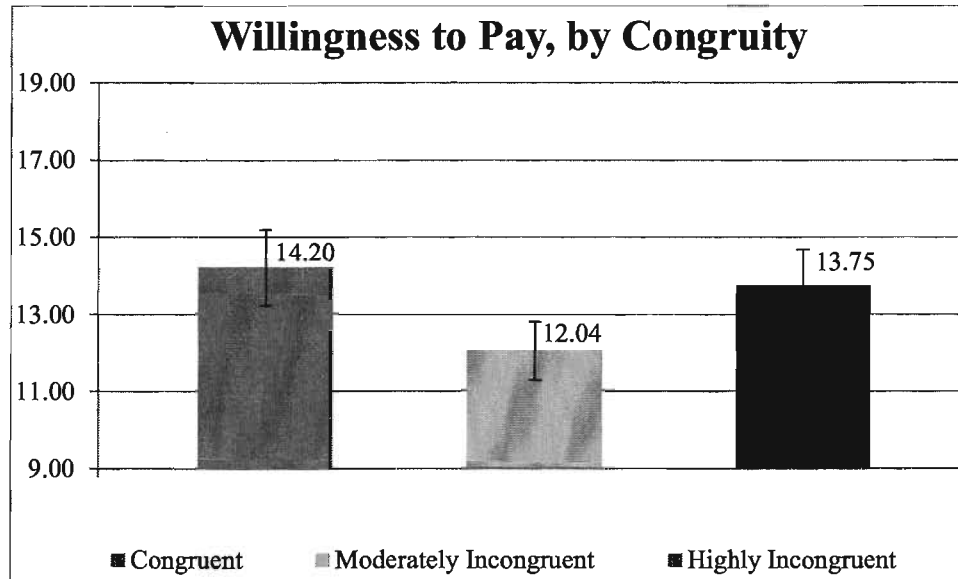


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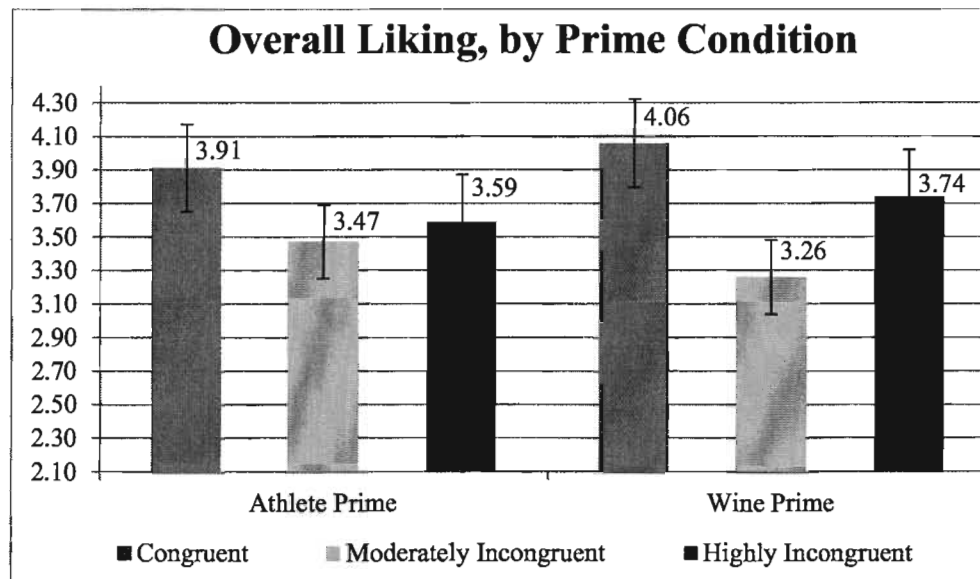


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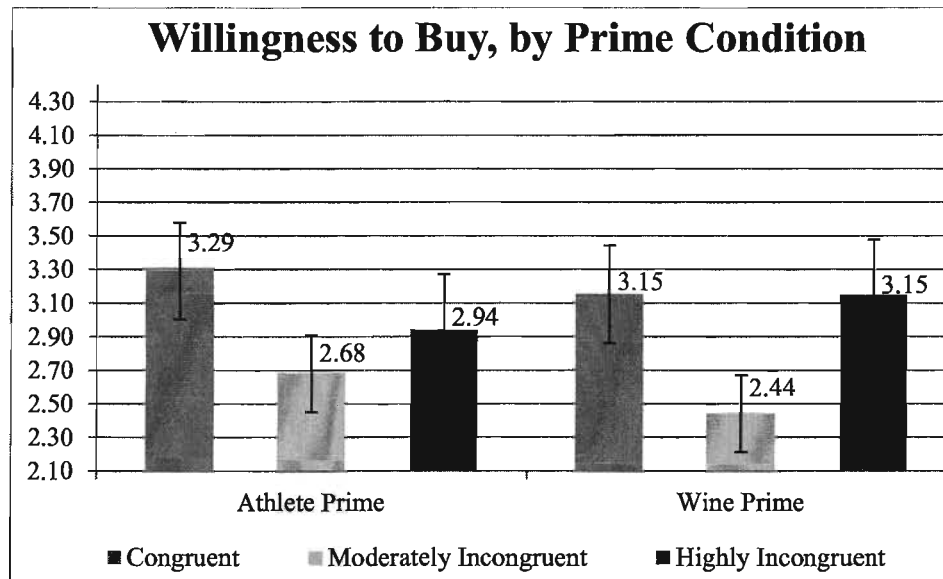


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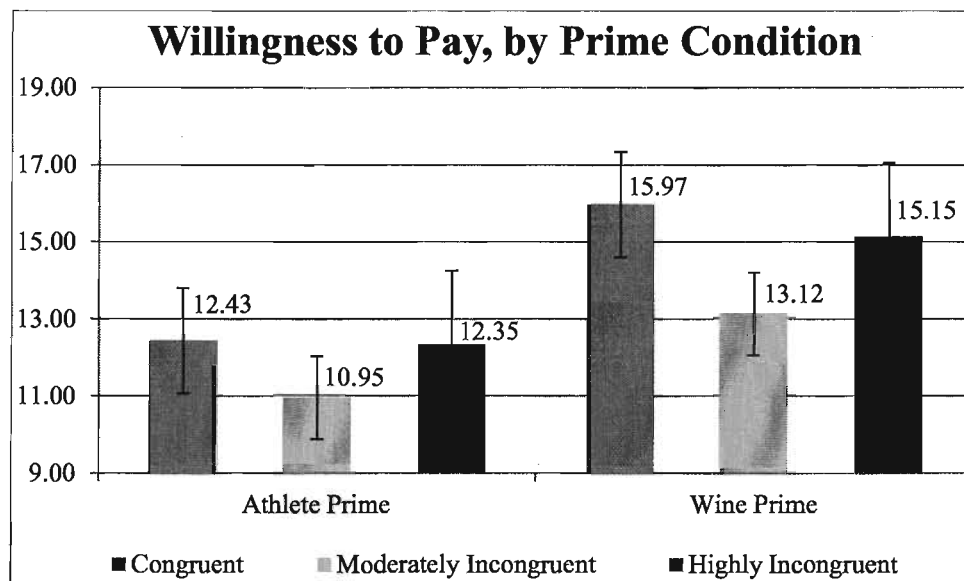


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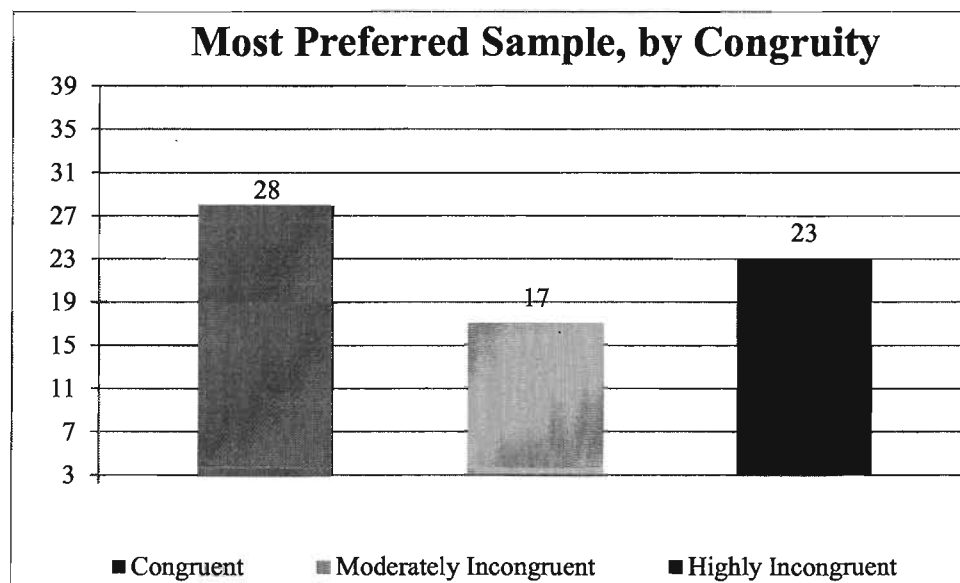


Figure 19

